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Sc 10K GIFT OF W. R. Daingerfield By Si Arne Beza iline, Butl Cæss Cice Corn the G Cros ith N Frie 2mo. mo. , Geor of Ve Har. on the A Latin Reader. A New Latin Reader. With References, Suggestions, Notes, and Vocabulary



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LATIN GRAMMAR

FOR

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

 $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{Y}$

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REVISED STANDARD EDITION

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PREFACE

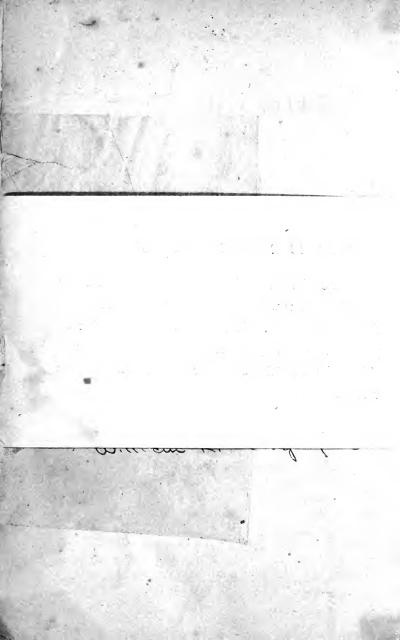
TO THE REVISED EDITION.

NOTE TO THE REVISED GRAMMAR.

Future editions of the author's Latin Reader and other text-books will be published with references to the new Grammar. With the help of the table on page 427, however, the corresponding references to either edition of the Grammar may be found without inconvenience.

ne volume now onered to the public has been prepared in view of these facts. It is the result of a thorough and complete revision of the author's Latin Grammar published in 1864. To a large extent, indeed, it is a new and independent work; yet the paradigms, rules of construction, and in general all parts intended for recitation, have been only slightly changed. The aim of the work in its present form is threefold.

1. It is designed to present a clear, simple, and convenient outline of Latin grammar for the beginner. It



PREFACE

TO THE REVISED EDITION.

The last quarter of a century has revealed many important facts in the development of language. During this period philological research has thrown new light upon Latin forms and inflections, upon the laws of phonetic change, upon the use of cases, moods, and tenses, and upon the origin and history of numerous constructions. The student of Latin grammar is now entitled to the full benefit of the important practical results which these labors in the field of linguistic study have brought within the proper sphere of the school. In securing this advantage, however, care must be taken not to divert the attention of the learner from the one object before him—the attainment of a full and accurate knowledge of the language.

The volume now offered to the public has been prepared in view of these facts. It is the result of a thorough and complete revision of the author's Latin Grammar published in 1864. To a large extent, indeed, it is a new and independent work; yet the paradigms, rules of construction, and in general all parts intended for recitation, have been only slightly changed. The aim of the work in its present form is threefold.

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CONTENTS.

PART FIRST. orthography.

Roman Method of Pronunciation English Method . Continental Method . Quantity Accentuation . Phonetic Changes . I. Changes in Vowels . II. Changes in Consonants .		3 5 8 8 9 10 11 16
PART SECOND.		
ETYMOLOGY.		
CHAPTER I.		
NOUNS.		
Gender		21
Person, Number, and Case	٠.	22
Declension		23
First Declension		24 '
Greek Nouns		26
Second Declension		26
Greek Nouns		29
Third Declension	•	30
Class I.—Consonant-Stems		30
Stems in a Labial	•	30
Stems in a Dental	•	31
Stems in a Guttural	•	32
Stems in a Liquid or a Nasal	•	33
Class II.—I-Stems	•	34
Special Paradigms	•	35 39
Greek Nouns	•	40
Synopsis of the Third Declension	•	41
Gender	•	46
Fourth Declension	•	48

		`				E	AGE
Fifth Declension							50
Fifth Declension							51
Declension of Compound Nouns						-	52
Irregular Nouns							53
Irregular Nouns	. '		٠.	·		•	53
II. Defective	•	•	•		•		53
	•		•	•		•	55
	•	•	•	•	•		56
IV. Heterogeneous	•		•	•		•	90
CHAPTER II.							
ADJECTIVES.							
First and Second Declensions							57
Third Declension							59
Irregular Adjectives							62
Comparison	٠.						63
I Terminational Comparison	. •		•	•		•	63
II Adverbiel Comparison	•	•		•	•		65
Third Declension Irregular Adjectives Comparison I. Terminational Comparison II. Adverbial Comparison Output II. Adverbial Comparison II. Adverbial Comparison II. Adverbial Comparison	•		•	•		•	65
Numerals	•	•	,	•	•		00
CHI DEED III							
CHAPTER III.							
PRONOUNS.							
I. Personal Pronouns							70
II. Possessive Pronouns							71
II. Possessive Pronouns							72
IV. Relative Pronouns							74
IV. Relative Pronouns	٠.		_				75
VI. Indefinite Pronouns	. •		•			•	76
Table of Correlatives	•	•	,		•		77
Table of Correlatives	•		•	•		•	• •
CHAPTER IV.							
Voices, Moods Tenses Numbers, Persons							78
Tongog	•	•		•	•		80
Numbers Persons	•		•	•		•	81
	•	•	•	•	•		81
Infinitive, Gerund, Supine	•		•	•		•	82
Carticiple	•	•		•	•		
Conjugation	•		•	•		•	82
Paradigms of Verbs	•	•		•	•		84
Comparative View of Conjugations	•		•				102
Verbs in io: Conjugation III							106
Verbal Inflections							108
Synopsis of Conjugation							110
Deponent Verbs							114
Verbal Inflections							114
Peculiarities in Conjugation							115
Analysis of Verbal Endings							117
I. Tense-signs							117
II. Mood-signs							117
Analysis of Verbal Endings	•	•			•		118
						•	

/		(00	N	TI	$\overline{c}N$	TS	7.										ix
																		PAGE
Formation of Stems . I. Present Stem		٠		•		•		•		•		•		•		•		119 119
II. Perfect Stems	•		•		•		•		•		•		•		•			121
III. Supine Stem		•		•		•		•		•		•		•		•		122
Classification of Verbs .			•															122
First Conjugation																		122
Second Conjugation																		124
Third Conjugation					•								•					127
Fourth Conjugation		•		•		•		•		•		٠		٠		•		134
Irregular Verbs .	•		•		٠		•		•		٠		٠		•		•	135
Defective		•		•		•		•		٠		•		•		•		$\frac{141}{143}$
Impersonal	•		٠		•		•		•		•		•		•		•	145
4.	C :	Н	A	P	Т	\mathbf{E}	\mathbf{R}	,	v.									
			Ρ.	AR	TIC	CLI	ES.											
Adverbs																		144
Table of Correlatives	3																	147
Comparison																		149
Prepositions			•		•										•			149
Conjunctions		٠		•		•		•		•		٠		٠		٠		150
Interjections	•		•		•		•		•		•		•		•		•	152
		CI	\mathbf{I}	lΡ	TH	ER	7	71.										
1	FOR	M.	AΊ	'IO	N	OF	٠ ٧	٧o	RI	s.								
I Doots Chama Cuffer	20																	152
I. Roots, Stems, Suffixe Primary Suffixes	38	•		٠		•		•		•		•		•		•		155
II. Derivation of Words			•		•		•		•		•		•		•		•	158
Derivative Nouns		•		•		•		•		•		•		•		•		158
Derivative Adject		3	·						-				·					165
Derivative Verbs																		169
III. Composition of Wor																		172
Compound Nouns					•		•		•				•				•	173
Compound Adject		3		•		•		٠		•				. •		•		174
Compound Verbs	•		•		•		•		•		٠		٠		٠		٠	175
					·						-							
P	A	R	T	•	T	. 1	1	ı	R	D								
			8	SY)	NT	ΑŽ	Κ.											
		C	Ή	A	PΤ	Έl	R	I.										
S	YN	T	X	0	F	SE	NT	EN	CE	es.								
I. Classification of Sent II. Elements of Sentence																		179 182
11. Elements of Sentence	:3		•		•		•		•		•		•		•		•	102

CHAPTER II.

T.	Agreement of Nouns							184
	Predicate Nouns	•		·		•		184
	Appositives		Ť		٠		•	18
II.	General View of Cases	٠		٠		٠		186
	Nominative, Vocative		٠		•		٠	18
****	I. Nominative	•		•		•		18
	II. Vocative		•		•		•	188
IV		•		•		•		189
• '	I. Direct Object		•		•		•	189
	Two Accusatives	•		•		•		191
	II. Accusative in an Adverbial Sense .		٠		•		•	193
	Accusative of Specification	•		•		•		198
	Accusative of Time and Space .		•		•		i.	194
	Accusative of Limit	•		٠		•		198
	III. Accusative in Exclamations		•		•		•	196
v	Dative	•		•		•		196
٠.	Dative with Verbs-Indirect Object		•		•		•	19
	Dative with Special Verbs	•		•		•		199
	Dative with Compounds		•		•		•	20
	Dative of Possessor	•		•		•		202
	Dative of Apparent Agent		•		•		•	209
	Ethical Dative	•		•		•		203
	Two Datives.		•		•		•	204
	Dative with Adjectives	•		•		•		204
	Dative with Nouns and Adverbs .		•		•		•	203
VI	Genitive	•		•		•		200
	Genitive with Nouns		•		•		•	206
	Genitive with Adjectives	•		•		•		210
	Predicate Genitive		•		•		•	212
	Genitive with Special Verbs	•	_	•		•		213
	Accusative and Genitive		٠		•	_	•	218
VII.	Ablative	•		•		•		21
	I. Ablative Proper		٠		•		٠	218
	Ablative of Place from which	•		•	_	•		218
	Ablative of Separation, Source, Cause		•		•		•	218
	Ablative with Comparatives	•		٠		•		222
	II. Instrumental Ablative		٠		•	_	•	223
	Ablative of Accompaniment	•		•		•		223
	Ablative of Means		•		•		•	224
	Ablative in Special Constructions .	•		•		•		22
	Ablative of Price		•		•		•	226
	Ablative of Difference	•		•		•		226
	Ablative of Specification		•		•		•	227
	III. Locative Ablative	•		•		•		227
	Ablative of Place		•		•		•	227
	Ablative of Time	•		•		•		229
	Ablativa Abaaluta		•		•		•	231
III	Cases with Prepositions	•		•		•		232
			•		•		•	200

CHAPTER III.

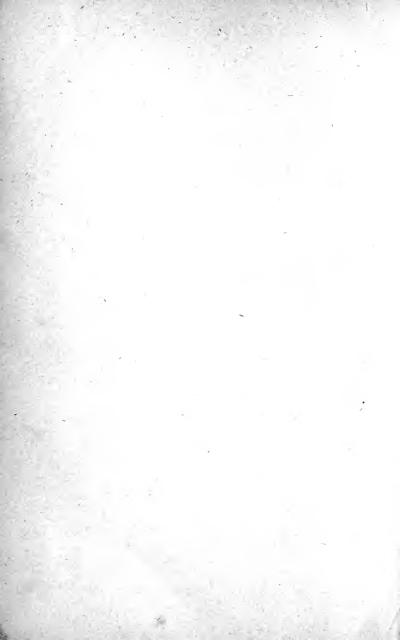
SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.				PAGE
Agreement of Adjectives	•			239 241
CHAPTER IV.				
SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.				
Agreement of Pronouns				244
Use of Pronouns	•	-		246
Personal, Possessive	. '		•	246
'				247
Reflexive				248
Relative				251
Interrogative	•			252
Indefinite	,	•	•	252
CHAPTER V.				
SYNTAX OF VERBS.				
I. Agreement of Verbs-Use of Voices				254
II. Indicative and its Tenses	٠.			257
Tenses of Indicative			-	257
TT C T 3'				262
III. General View of the Subjunctive and its Tenses				264
IV. Subjunctive in Principal Clauses				265
IV. Subjunctive in Principal Clauses Subjunctive of Desire				265
Potential Subjunctive				266
Potential Subjunctive				268
VI. Moods in Subordinate Clauses I. Tenses of Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses		,	•	269
1. Tenses of Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses				269
II. Subjunctive in Clauses of Purpose III. Subjunctive in Clauses of Result	•	•		273
III. Subjunctive in Clauses of Result	•	•		276
IV. Moods in Conditional Sentences V. Moods in Concessive Clauses	•	•	•	280
V. Moods in Concessive Clauses	•	•		287 289
VI. Moods in Causal Clauses	•		•	291
VIII. Indirect Discourse	•	•		296
Moods and Tenses in Indirect Discourse	•	,	•	296
Persons and Pronouns in Indirect Discourse	•	•		299
Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse			•	299
Indirect Clauses	٠.			301
VII. Infinitive—Substantive Clauses	. '			306
I. Infinitive				306
Infinitive with Verbs				306
Accusative and Infinitive with Verbs .				308
Accusative and Infinitive with Verbs Subject of Infinitive				310
Tenses of Infinitive				311
Infinitive in Special Constructions .	•	٠		313
· II. Substantive Clauses				214

CO	NT	EN	TS

	٠	٠	
X	1	1	

VIII. Gerunds, Gerundives, Supines, and Participles I. Gerunds II. Gerundives	314 314 316
	317 318
CHAPTER VI.	
SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.	
Conjunctions	320 321 324
CHAPTER VII.	
Rules of Syntax	324
CHAPTER VIII.	
ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES.	
	333 336
PART FOURTH.	
PROSODY.	
CHAPTER I.	
QUANTITY.	
II. Quantity in Final Syllables III. Quantity in Increments	338 339 342 342
Increments of Conjugation	344 344 346
CHAPTER II.	
VERSIFICATION.	
Feet	349 350 351 353

	CONTENTS.					xiii
						PAGE
II.	Varieties of Verse					354
	I. Dactylic Hexameter					354
	II. Other Dactylic Verses					358
	III. Trochaic Verse					359
	IV. Iambic Verse					360
	V. Ionic Verse					361
	VI. Logaoedic Verse					362
III.	Versification of the Principal Latin Poets					364
	Vergil, Juvenal, Ovid, Horace					364
	Lyric Metres of Horace					364
	Index to Lyric Metres of Horace					368
	Catullus, Martial, Seneca, Plautus, Terence					368
	A P P E N D I X.					
-	771 6.0 1					0 70
I.	Figures of Speech	•		•		370
	Latin Language and Literature		•		٠	374
111.	Roman Calendar	•		•		$\frac{376}{378}$
17.	Roman Money, Weights, and Measures Roman Names		•		•	
٧.	Abbreviations	•		•		380
37T	Vowels before Two Consonants or a Double Consonan	_	•		•	380 381
V 1.		ι.		•		991
Inde	ex of Verbs					383
	eral Index	•				390



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¹ The publication of this work in 1833 marked an era in philological studies.

² See also Brambach, W. Die Neugestaltung der lateinischen Orthographie. Leipzig, 1868.

³ An edition with modifications by J. Windekilde was published at Bonn, 1879.

⁴ Two other valuable works by the same author are:

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⁶ This periodical contains the latest views upon numerous questions connected with comparative philology and linguistic science.

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¹ This work of Sievers forms the first volume and that of Meyer the third in the series of Indo-European grammars now in course of publication.

LATIN GRAMMAR.

1. LATIN GRAMMAR treats of the principles of the Latin language. It comprises four parts:

I. ORTHOGRAPHY, which treats of the letters and sounds

of the language.

II. ETYMOLOGY, which treats of the classification, inflection, and derivation of words.

III. SYNTAX, which treats of the construction of sentences.

IV. PROSODY, which treats of quantity and versification.

PART FIRST.

ORTHOGRAPHY.

ALPHABET.

2. The Latin alphabet is the same as the English with the omission of w.

¹ The Romans derived their alphabet from the Greek colony at Cumae. In its original form it contained twenty-one letters: A, B, C, D, E, F, H, I, K, L, M, N, O, P, Q, R, S, T, U, X, Z. C was a modification of the Greek gamma, and F of the digamma. Q was the Greek koppa, which early disappeared from the Greek alphabet. C had the sound afterward denoted by c. Z early disappeared from the Latin alphabet, but was subsequently restored, though only in foreign words. Throughout the classical period only capital letters were used. On the Alphabet, see Whitney, pp. 59-70; Papillon, pp. 28-48; Wordsworth, pp. 5-10; Roby, I., pp. 21-62; Slevers, pp. 24-105; Corssen, I., pp. 1-346; Kühner, I., pp. 35-49.

1. C in the fourth century at v. supplied the place both of C and of G.

2. G, introduced in the third century B. c., was formed from C by simply

changing the lower part of that letter.

OPEN POWER 4

- 3. Even in the classical period the original form C was retained in abbreviations of proper names beginning with G. Thus C stands for $G\bar{a}ius$, Cn for Gnaeus. See 649.
- 4. J, j, modifications of I, i, introduced in the seventeenth century of our era to distinguish the consonant I, i from the vowel I, i, are rejected by many recent editors, but retained by others.
- 5. The letters u and v, originally designated by the character V, v are now used in the best editions, the former as a vowel, the latter as a consonant.
- 6. In classical Latin, k is seldom used, and y and z occur only in foreign words, chiefly in those derived from the Greek.
- 3. Letters are divided according to the position of the vocal organs at the time of utterance into two general classes, vowels and consonants, and these classes are again divided into various subdivisions, as seen in the following

CLASSIFICATION OF LETTERS.

I. VOWELS.

1.	OPEN TOWEL	•	•	•	•	•	•		ч		
2.	MEDIAL VOWELS								е	0	
3.	CLOSE VOWELS 5							i	У		u

¹ Throughout the classical period, I, used both as a vowel and as a consonant, supplied the place of I, i and J, j. As practical convenience has, however, already sanctioned the use of i, u, and v, characters unknown to the ancient Romans, may it not also justify the use of J, J in educational works, especially as the Romans themselves attempted to find a suitable modification of J to designate this consonant?

² Originally V, used both as a vowel and as a consonant, supplied the place of U, u and V, v, but it was subsequently modified to U.

³ If the vocal organs are sufficiently open to allow an uninterrupted flow of vocal sound, a vowel is produced, otherwise a consonant; but the least open vowels are scarcely distinguishable from the most open consonants. Thus i, sounded fully according to the ancient pronunciation as ee, is a vowel; but, combined with a vowel in the same syllable, it becomes a consonant with the sound of $y: e' - \bar{\iota}$ ($\bar{u}' - ee$, vowel), $\bar{e}' - jus$ ($\bar{u}' - yus$, consonant, almost identical in sound with $\bar{u}' - ee - us$).

4 In pronouncing the open vowel a as in father, the vocal organs are fully open. By gradually contracting them at one point and another we produce in succession the media vowels, the close vowels, the semivowels, the nasals, the aspirate, the fricatives, and finally the mutes, in pronouncing which the closure of the vocal organs becomes complete.

E is a medial vowel between the open a and the close i, o a medial vowel between the open a and the close u; i is a palatal vowel, u a labial; y was introduced from the Greek. The vowel scale, here presented in the form of a triangle, may be represented as a line, with a in the middle, with i at the palatal extreme, and with u at the labial extreme;

II. CONSONANTS.

			GUTTURALS.	DENTALS.	LABIALS.
1. Semivowels, sonant .			\mathbf{i} or $\mathbf{j} = y$		$\mathbf{v} = w$
2. NASALS, sonant			\mathbf{n}^{1}	\mathbf{n}	m
3. Aspirate, surd			h		
4. FRICATIVES, comprising					
1. Liquids, sonant .				1, r	
2. Spirants, surd .				8	f
5. Mutes, comprising					
1. Sonant Mutes .			g	d	b
2. Surd Mutes			c, k, q	t	р

Note 1 .- Observe that the consonants are divided,

- I. According to the organs chiefly employed in their production, into
 - 1. Gutturals—throat letters, also called Palatals;
 - 2. Dentals—teeth letters, also called Linguals;
 - 3. Labials—lip letters.
- II. According to the MANNER in which they are uttered, into
 - 1. Sonants, or voiced letters;
 - 2. Surds, or voiceless letters.2

Note 2.—X=cs, and z=ds, are double consonants, formed by the union of a mute with the spirant s.

4. DIPHTHONGS are formed by the union of two vowels in one syllable.

Note.—The most common diphthongs are ae, oe, au, and eu. Ei, oi, and ui are rare.

ROMAN METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.6

5. Vowels.—The vowel sounds are the following:

1 With the sound of n in concord, linger. It occurs before gutturals: congressus, meeting.

meeting.

² The distinction between a *sonant* and a *surd* will be appreciated by observing the difference between the sonant b and its corresponding surd p in such words as bad, pad.

B is vocalized, p is not.

³ X often represents the union of g and s, but in such cases g is probably first assimilated to c; see 30, 33, 1.

4 Proper diphthongs were formed originally by the union of an open or medial vowel, a, e, or o, with a close vowel, i or u, as ai, ei, oi, au, eu, ou. An improper diphthong was also formed by the union of the two close vowels, as ui. For the weakening of these original diphthongs, see 23, note,

b In this country three distinct methods are recognized in the pronunciation of Latin. They are generally known as the *Roman*, the *English*, and the *Continental Methods*. The researches of Corssen and others have revealed laws of phonetic change of great value in tracing the history of Latin words. Accordingly, whatever method of pronunciation may be adopted for actual use in the class-room, the pupil should sooner or later be made familiar with the leading features of the Roman Method, which is at least an approximation to the ancient pronunciation of the language.

Long.						SHORT.						
ā	like	\ddot{a}	in	father:	\bar{a}' - $r\bar{\imath}s.^1$		a	like	а	$_{ m in}$	Cuba:3	a'-met.
ē	44	e	"	prey:2	\bar{e}' - $d\bar{\imath}$.		е	"	e	"	net:	re'-get.
ī	"	ï	"	machine:2	$\bar{\imath}'$ - $r\bar{\imath}$.		i	"	i	"	cigar:	vi'-det.
ō	"	ō	"	old:	ō'-rās.		0	"	0	"	obey:	mo'-net.
ū	44	u	"	rule:2	\bar{u}' - $n\bar{o}$.		u	44	u	"	full:	su'-mus.

- 1. A short vowel in a long syllable is pronounced short: sunt, 4 u as in sum, su'-mus. But see 16, note 2.
- 2. **Y**, found only in Greek words, is in sound intermediate between the Latin i and u, similar to the French u and the German $\ddot{u}:N\ddot{y}'$ -sa.
- 3. I preceded by an accented a, e, o, or y, and followed by another vowel, is a semivowel with the sound of y in yet (7): $A-ch\bar{a}'-ia$ ($\bar{A}-k\bar{a}'-y\bar{a}$).
- 4. U⁵ in qu, and generally in gu and su before a vowel, has the sound of $vv : qu\bar{i}$ (kwē), lin'-gua (lin'-gwā), $su\bar{a}'-sit$ (swā'-sit).
- 6. DIPHTHONGS.—In diphthongs each vowel retains its own sound:

- 1. **Ei** as in veil, **eu** with the sounds of e and u combined, and oi = oe, occur in a few words: $dein,^7$ new'-ter, proin.⁷
- 7. Consonants. Most of the consonants are pronounced nearly as in English, but the following require special notice:

c like
$$k$$
 in king: $c\bar{e}'$ - $l\bar{e}s$ (kay-lace), $c\bar{\imath}'$ - $v\bar{\imath}$ (k \bar{e} -w \bar{e}).
g " g " get: re' -gunt, re' -gis, ge' -nus.

¹ The Latin vowels marked with the sign ⁻ are long in quantity, i. e., in the duration of the sound (16); those not marked are short in quantity; see 16, note 3.

² Or \bar{e} like \bar{a} in made, \bar{i} like \bar{e} in me, and \bar{u} like oo in moon.

³ The short vowels can be only imperfectly represented by English equivalents. In theory they have the same sounds as the corresponding long vowels, but occupy only half as much time in utterance.

⁴ Observe the difference between the length or quantity of the vowel and the length or quantity of the syllable. Here the vowel u is short, but the syllable sunt is long; see 16, I. In syllables long irrespective of the length of the vowels contained in them, it is often difficult and sometimes absolutely impossible to determine the natural quantity of the vowels; but it is thought advisable to treat vowels as short in all situations where there are not good reasons for believing them to be long.

⁵ This is sometimes called the parasitic u, as having been developed in many instances by the preceding consonant, and as being dependent upon it. See Papillon, p. 50; Peile, p. 383; Corssen, I., pp. 69, 70, and 85.

⁶ Combining the sounds of a and i.

⁷ When pronounced as monosyllables in poetry (608, III.); otherwise as dissyllables: de'-in, pro'-in.

j like y in yet: $j\bar{u}'$ -stum (yoo-stum), $j\alpha'$ -cet.

s " s " son: sa'-cer, so'-ror, A'-si-a.

t " t " time: ti'-mor, tō'-tus, āc'-ti-ŏ.

v " w " we: va'-dum, vī'-cī, vi'-ti-um.1

Note.—Before s and t, b has the sound of p:urbs, sub'-ter, pronounced urps, sup'-ter. 2 Ch has the sound of k:cho'-rus (ko'-rus).

- 8. Syllables.—In dividing words into syllables,
- 1. Make as many syllables as there are vowels and diphthongs: $m\bar{o}'$ -re, per-su \bar{a}' -d \bar{e} , $m\bar{e}n'$ -sae.
- 2. Join to each vowel as many of the consonants which precede it—one or more—as can be conveniently pronounced at the beginning of a word or syllable: ³ pa'-ter, pa'-trēs, ge'-ne-rī, do'-mi-nus, nō'-scit, si'-stis, clau'-stra, mēn'-sa, bel'-lum, tem'-plum, ēmp'-tus. But—
- 3. Compound words must be separated into their component parts, if the first of these parts ends in a consonant: ab'-es, ob-ī'-re.

ENGLISH METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.4

- 9. Vowels.—Vowels generally have their long or short English sounds.
- 10. Long Sounds.—Vowels have their long English sounds—a as in fate, e in mete, i in pine, o in note, u in tube, v in type—in the following situations:
 - 1. In final syllables ending in a vowel:

Se, si, ser'-vi, ser'-vo, cor'-nu, mi'-sy.

2. In all syllables, before a vowel or diphthong:

De'-us, de-o'-rum, de'-ae, di-e'-i, ni'-hi-lum.6

² On Assimilation in Sound in this and similar cases, see p. 17, foot-note 1.

¹ There is some uncertainty in regard to the sound of v. Corssen gives it at the beginning of a word the sound of the English v, in all other situations the sound of w.

³ By some grammarians any combination of consonants which can begin either a Latin or a Greek word is always joined to the following vowel, as o'-mnis, i'-pse. Roby, on the contrary, thinks that the Romans pronounced with each vowel as many of the following consonants as could be readily combined with it.

⁴ Scholars in different countries generally pronounce Latin substantially as they pronounce their own languages. Accordingly in England and in this country the English Method has in general prevailed, though of late the Roman pronunciation has gained favor in many quarters.

⁵ These sounds in Latin, as in English, are somewhat modified by the consonants which accompany them. Thus, before r, when final, or followed by another consonant, ϵ , ϵ , and u are scarcely distinguishable, while a and o are pronounced as in far, for. Between qu and dr, or rt, a approaches the sound of o: $quar^ttus$, as in $quar^ter$.

⁶ In these rules no account is taken of the aspirate h: hence the first i in nihilum is treated as a vowel before another vowel; for the same reason, ch, ph, and th are treated as single mutes; thus th in Athos and Othrys.

3. In penultimate' syllables before a single consonant, or before a mute followed by a liquid:

Pa'-ter, pa'-tres, ho-no'-ris, A'-thos, O'-thrys.

4. In unaccented syllables, not final, before a single consonant, or before a mute followed by a liquid:

Do-lo'-ris, cor'-po-ri, con'-su-lis, a-gric'-o-la.

- 1) A unaccented has the sound of a final in America: men'-sa, a-cu'-tus, a-ma'-mus.2
- 2) I and y unaccented, in any syllable except the first and last, generally have the short sound: nob'-i-lis (nob'-e-lis), Am'-y-cus (Am'-e-cus).
- 3) I preceded by an accented a, e, o, or y, and followed by another vowel, is a semivowel ³ with the sound of y in yet: A-cha'-ia (A-ka'-ya), Pom-pe'-ius (Pom-pe'-yus), La-to'-ia (La-to'-ya), Har-py'-ia (Har-py'-ya).
- 4) **U** has the short sound before bl, and the other vowels before gl and tl: Pub-lic'-o-la, Ag-la'-o-phon, At'-las.
- 5) **U**⁴ in qu, and generally in gu and su before a vowel, has the sound of w: qui (kwi), qua; lin'-gua (lin'-gwa), lin'-guis; sua'-de-o (swa'-de-o).
- 6) COMPOUND WORDS.—When the first part of a compound is entire and ends in a consonant, any vowel before such consonant has generally the short sound: a in ab'-es, e in red'-it, i in in'-it, o in ob'-it, prod'-est. But those final syllables which, as exceptions, have the long sound before a consonant (11, 1), retain that sound in compounds: post'-quam, hos'-ce. E'-ti-am and quo'-ni-am are generally pronounced as simple words.⁵
- 11. Short Sounds.—Vowels have their short English sounds—a as in fat, e in met, i in pin, o in not, u in tub, y in myth—in the following situations:
 - 1. In final syllables ending in a consonant:

A'-mat, a'-met, rex'-it, sol, con'-sul, Te'-thys; except post, cs final, and os final in plural cases: res, di'-es, hos, a'gros.

2. In all syllables before x, or any two consonants except a mute followed by a liquid (10, 3 and 4):

Rex'-it, bel'-lum, rex-e'-runt, bel-lo'-rum.

¹ Penultimate, the last syllable but one.

² Some give the same sound to a final in monosyllables: da, qua; while others give it the long sound according to 10, 1.

³ Sometimes written j.

⁴ This is sometimes called the parasitic u, as having been developed in many instances by the preceding consonant and as being dependent upon it. See Papillou, p. 50; Peile, p. 383; Corssen, I., pp. 69, 70, and 85.

⁵ Etiam is compounded of et and jam; quoniam, of quom = quum, cum, and jam.

3. In all accented syllables, not penultimate, before one or more consonants:

Dom'-i-nus, pat'-ri-bus. But-

- 1) A, e, or o before a single consonant (or a mute and a liquid), followed by e, i, or y before another vowel, has the long sound: a'-ci-es, a'-cri-a, me'-re-o, do'-ce-o.
- 2) **U**, in any syllable not final, before a single consonant or a mute and a liquid, except bl, has the long sound: Pu'-ni-cus, sa-lu'-bri-tas.
 - 3) Compounds; see 10, 6).
- 12. DIPHTHONGS.—Diphthongs are pronounced as follows:

Ae like e: Cae'-sar, Daed'-a-lus.¹ | Au as in author: au'-rum.

Oe like e: Oe'-ta, Oed'-i-pus.¹ | Eu as in neuter: neu'-ter.

- 1. Ei and oi are seldom diphthongs, but when so used they are pronounced as in height, coin: hei, proin; see Synaeresis, 608, III.
 - 2. Ui, as a diphthong with the long sound of i, occurs in cui, hui, huic.
- 13. Consonants.—The consonants are pronounced in general as in English. Thus—
- I. C and G are soft (like s and j) before e, i, y, ae, and oe, and hard in other situations: ce'-do (se'-do), ci'-vis, Cy'-rus, cae'-do, coe'-pi, a'-ge (a'-je), a'-gi; ca'-do (ka'-do), co'-go, cum, Ga'-des. But
 - 1. C has the sound of sh-
- 1) Before i preceded by an accented syllable and followed by a vowel: so'-ci-us (so'-she-us);
- 2) Before eu and yo preceded by an accented syllable: ca-du'-ce-us (ca-du'-she-us), Sic'-y-on (Sish'-y-on).
 - 2. Ch is hard like k: cho'-rus (ko'-rus), Chi'-os (Ki'-os).
 - 3. G has the soft sound before g soft: ag'-ger.
- II. S, T, and X are generally pronounced as in the English words son, time, expect: sa'-cer, ti'-mor, rex'-i (rek'-si). But—
- 1. S, T, and X are aspirated before i preceded by an accented syllable and followed by a vowel—s and t taking the sound of sh, and x that of ksh: Al'-si-um (Al'-she-um), ar'-ti-um (ar'-she-um), anx'-i-us (ank'-she-us). But
- 1) T loses the aspirate—(1) after s, t, or α : Os'-ti- α , At'-ti-us, mix'-ti-o; (2) in old infinitives in ier: flec'-ti-er; (3) generally in proper names in tion (tyon): Phi-lis'-ti-on, Am-phic'-ty-on.

¹ The diphthong has the long sound in Cae'-sar and Oe'-ta, according to 10, 3, but the short sound in Daed'-a-lus (Ded'-a-lus) and Oed'-i-pus (Ed'-i-pus), according to 11, 3, as e would be thus pronounced in the same situations.

- 2. S is pronounced like z-
- 1) At the end of a word, after e, ae, au, b, m, n, r: spes, praes, laus, urbs, hi'-ems, mons, pars;
- 2) In a few words after the analogy of the corresponding English words: Cae'-sar, Caesar; cau'-sa, cause; mu'-sa, muse; mi'-ser, miser, miserable, etc.
 - 3. X at the beginning of a word has the sound of z: Xan'-thus.

14. Syllables.—In dividing words into syllables—

- 1. Make as many syllables as there are vowels and diphthongs: mo'-re, per-sua'-de, men'-sae.
- 2. Distribute the consonants so as to give the proper sound to each vowel and diphthong, as determined by previous rules (10-12): pa'-ter, pa'-tres, a-gro'-rum, au-di'-vi; gen'-e-ri, dom'-i-nus; bel'-lum, pat'-ri-bus; emp'-tus, tem'-plum; rex'-i, anx'-i-us; post'-quam, hos'-cc.\frac{1}{2}

CONTINENTAL METHOD OF PRONUNCIATION.2

- 15. For the Continental Method, as adopted in this country, take—
 - 1. The Roman pronunciation of the vowels and diphthongs; see 5 and 6.
 - 2. The English pronunciation of the consonants; 3 see 13.
 - 3. The Roman division of words into syllables; see 8.

QUANTITY.

- 16. Syllables are in quantity or length either long, short, or common.
 - I. Long.—A syllable is long in quantity—
 - 1. If it contains a diphthong or a long vowel: haec, res.

¹ Observe that compound words are separated into their component parts, if the first of these parts ends in a consonant (10, 4, 6), as post'-quam; that in other cases, after a vowel with a long sound, consonants are joined to the following syllable, as in the first four examples, part-fer, etc., and that, after a vowel with a short sound, a single consonant is joined to such vowel, as in gen'-e-ri and dom'-i-nus; that two consonants are separated, as in bel'-lum, etc.; that of three or four consonants, the last, or, if a mute and a liquid, the last two, are joined to the following syllable, as in emp'-lus, etc., but that the double consonant x is joined to the preceding vowel, as in rex'-i, anx'-i-us.

² Strictly speaking, there is no Continental Method, as every nation on the Continent of Europe has its own method.

³ Though the pronunciation of the consonants varies somewhat in different institutions.

⁴ Common—i. e., sometimes long and sometimes short. For rules of quantity see Prosody. Two or three leading facts are here given for the convenience of the learner.

⁵ See note 8 below.

2. If its vowel is followed by j, x, or z, or any two consonants, except a mute and a liquid: dux, $r\bar{e}x$, sunt.

II. Short.—A syllable is short, if its vowel is followed by another vowel, by a diphthong, or by the aspirate h: di'-ēs, vi'-ae, ni'-hil.

III. Common.—A syllable is common, if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid: a'-grī.

Note 1.—Vowels are also in quantity either long, short, or common; but the quantity of the vowel does not always coincide with the quantity of the syllable.³

Note 2.—Vowels are long before ns and nf, generally also before gn and

j: cōn'-sul, īn-fē'-līx, rēg'-num, hū'-jus.4

Note 3.—The signs $\bar{}$, $\bar{}$ are used to mark the quantity of vowels, the first denoting that the vowel over which it is placed is long, the second that it is common, i. e., sometimes long and sometimes short: $a-m\bar{a}'-b\bar{b}$. All vowels not marked are to be treated as short.

Note 4.—Diphthongs are always long.

ACCENTUATION.

17. Words of two syllables are always accented on the first: mēn'-sa.

Note.-Monosyllables are also accented.

18. Words of more than two syllables are accented on

Observe that the vowel in such syllables may be either long or short. Thus it is long in rex, but short in dux and sunt,

9

¹ That is, in the order here given, with the mute before the liquid; if the liquid precedes, the syllable is long.

³ Thus in long syllables the vowels may be either long or short, as in rex, dux, sunt; see foot-note 4, p. 4. But in short syllables the vowels are also short.

⁴ See Schmitz, pp. 3-83, also p. 56; Kühner, I., p. 137; also H. A. J. Munro's pamzhlet on the Pronunciation of Latin, pp. 24-26.

 $^{^5}$ See p. 4, foot-note 4. In many works short vowels are marked with the sign $\check{\mbox{\it regis}}.$

⁶ With the ancient Romans accent probably related not to force or stress of voice, as with us, but to musical pitch. It was also distinguished as acute or circumflew. Thus all monosyllables and all words in which the vowel of the penult is long and the final syllable short were said to have the circumflex accent, while all other accented words were said to have the acute. The distinction is of no practical value in pronunciation. On the general subject of Accent, see Ellis, pp. 8-10; Roby, I., pp. 98-100; Kühner, I., p. 148; Corsson, II., pp. 806-808.

the *Penult*, if that is long in quantity, otherwise on the *Antepenult*: ho-nō'-ris, cōn'-su-lis.

- 1. Certain words which have lost a syllable retain the accent of the full form. Thus—
- 1) Genitives in $\bar{\imath}$ for $i\bar{\imath}$ and vocatives in $\bar{\imath}$ for ie: in-ge'- $n\bar{\imath}$ for in-ge'-ni- $\bar{\imath}$, Mer-cu'- $r\bar{\imath}$ for Mer-cu'-ri-e.
- 2) Certain words which have lost a final e: il-līe' for il-lī'-ce, il-lāe' for sl-lā'-ce, is-tīe' for is-tī'-ce, etc.; bo-nān' for bo-nā'-ne, il-lān' for il-lā'-ne, tan-tōn' for tan-tō'-ne, au-dīn' for au-dīs'-ne, ē-dūc' for ē-dū'-ce.3

Note 1.—Prepositions standing before their cases are treated as Proclitics—i. e., are so closely united in pronunciation with the following word as to have no accent of their own: $sub\ j\bar{u}'$ -di-ce. in-ter $r\bar{e}'$ - $q\bar{e}s$.

Note 2.—Penults common in quantity take the accent when used as long.

- 2. Compounds are accented like simple words; but-
- 1) The enclitics, que, ve, ne, ce, met, etc., throw back their accents upon the last syllable of the word to which they are appended: ho'-mi-ne'-que,4 mēn-sa'-que,5 e-go'-met.
- Fació, compounded with other words than prepositions, retains its own accent: ca-le-fa'-cit.⁴
- 3. A secondary or subordinate accent is placed on the second or third syllable before the primary accent—on the second, if that is the first syllable of the word, or is long in quantity, otherwise on the third: mo'-nu-ē'-runt, mo'-nu-e-rā'-mus, ā īn-stau'-rā-vē'-runt.

Note.—A few long words admit two secondary or subordinate accents: ho'-nō-rif'-t-cen-tis'-si-mus.6

PHONETIC CHANGES.

19. Latin words have undergone important changes in accordance with phonetic laws.

The penult is the last syllable but one; the antepenult, the last but two.

Thus the quantity of the syllable, not of the rowel, determines the place of the accent: regen'-tis, accented on the penult, because that syllable is long, though its rowel is short: see 16, I., 2.

³ According to Priscian, certain contracted words, as ves-trās' for ves-trā'-tis, or with the circumflex accent, ves-trās for ves-trā-tis, Sam-nīs for Sam-nī-tis, also retained the accent of the full form; but it is not deemed advisable to multiply exceptions in a school grammar. See Priscian, IV., 22.

4 By the English method, hom'-i-ne'-que, cal'-e-fa'-cit.

8 A word accented upon the penult thus loses its own accent before an enclitic: mēn'-sa, mēn-sa'-que.

6 By the English method, mon'-u-ē'-runt, mon'-u-e-rū'-mus, hon'-ō-rif'-i-cen-tis'-si-mus.

7 In the history of the ancient languages of the Indo-European family, to which the Latin, Greek, and English alike belong, the general direction of phonetic change has been from the extremes of the alphabetic scale—i. e., from the open a at one extreme and

I. CHANGES IN VOWELS.

20. Vowels are often lengthened:

1. In compensation for the dropping of consonants:

Servoms, 1 servos, slaves; rēgems, rēgēs, kings; posně, poně, I place; magior, 1 māior or mājor, greater.

2. In the inflection of verbs:

Legő, leg \tilde{i} , l I read, I have read; $ed\tilde{o}$, $\tilde{e}d\tilde{i}$, I eat, I have eaten; $fugi\tilde{o}$, $f\tilde{u}g\tilde{i}$, I flee, I have fled.

Note 1.—Sometimes vowels are changed, as well as lengthened: $ag\tilde{o}$, $\tilde{e}g\tilde{i}$, I drive, I have driven; $faci\tilde{o}$, $f\tilde{e}c\tilde{i}$, I make, I have made; see 255, II.

Note 2.—Different forms from the same stem or root sometimes show a variable vowel: ducis, dūcis, of a leader, you lead; regis, rēgis, you rule, of a king; tegō, toga, I cover, a covering, the toga.³ See also 22, 1.

21. Vowels are often shortened:4

1. Regularly in final syllables before m and t:

Erām, eram, ⁵ I was; moneām, moneam, let me advise; audiām, audiam, let me hear; erāt, erat, he was; amāt, amat, he loves; monēt, monet, he advises; sīt, sīt, may he be; audīt, audit, he hears.

2. Often in other final syllables. Thus-

1) Final \bar{a}^6 is shortened (1) in the Plural of Neuter nouns and adjectives, and (2) in the Nominative and Vocative Singular of Feminine nouns and adjectives of the first declension:

from the close mutes at the other—toward the middle of the scale, where the vowels and consonants meet; see 3. Accordingly, in Latin words we shall not unfrequently find e or o, or even i or u, occupying the place of a primitive a; and we shall sometimes find a liquid or a fricative occupying the place of a primitive mute. See Whitney, p. 68; Papillon, p. 49; Peile, pp. 199 and 312.

¹ O short in serroms is lengthened in servos to compensate for the loss of m, and a short in magior is lengthened in māior, mājor, to compensate for the loss of g.

² The short vowel of the present tense is here lengthened in the perfect; see 255, II.

³ In ducis, ducis, and in regis, rēgis, the variation is simply in the quantity of the vowel, but in tegö, toga, the vowel itself is changed, appearing as e in tegö and o in toga. Sometimes a single vowel appears in one form while a diphthong appears in another: fides, faith, foedus, treaty.

4 See Corssen, II., p. 436 seq.

⁵ In all these examples, the form with the long vowel in the final syllable is the earlier form, and, in general, is found only in inscriptions and in the early poets, as Plautus, Ennius, etc.; while the form with the short vowel belongs to the classical period.

⁶ Corssen regards numerals in *-gintā*, as $tr\bar{\imath}$ -gintā, $quadr\bar{a}$ -gintā, etc., as Plural Neuters, and \bar{a} as the original ending. He recognizes also the Neuter Plural of the pronoun with \bar{a} in ant- $e\bar{a}$, post- $e\bar{a}$, inter- $e\bar{a}$, praeter- $e\bar{a}$, ant- $e\bar{h}\bar{a}$ -c, praeter- $h\bar{a}$ -c. See Corssen, II., p. 455. For a different explanation, see 304, IV., N. 2.

 7 In masculine nouns of the first declension a final was short in the Nominative even in early Latin: scriba, a scribe. But most stems in a weakened a to o, and thus passed

into the second declension.

Templā, templa, temples; generā, genera, kinds; graviā, gravia, heavy; mūsā, mūsa, muse; bonā, bona, good.

2) In ār, ōr, and āl final, ā and ō are regularly shortened:

Regār, regar, let me be ruled; audiār, audiar, let me be heard; audiōr, audior, I am heard; honor, honor; ōrātōr, ōrātor, orator; moneōr, moneor, I am advised; animāle, animāl (27), animal, an animal.

3) Final ē, ī, and ō are sometimes shortened:

Benē, bene, well; nūbē, nūbe, with a cloud; nisī, nisi, unless; ibī, ibì, there; leō, leō, a lion; egō, ego, I.

22. Vowels are often weakened, i. e., are often changed to weaker vowels.

The order of the vowels, from the strongest to the weakest, is as follows:

a, o, u, e,
$$i.^2$$
Thus a is changed to o . . . u . . . e . . . i.

o to u . . . e . . . i.

u to e . . . i.

e to i.

Note.—The change from a through o to u is usually arrested at u, while a is often changed directly through e to i without passing through o or u.³

1. Vowels are often weakened in consequence of the lengthening of words by inflection, composition, etc.:

Carmen, carmenis, carminis, a song, of a song; frūctus, frūctubus, frūctubus, fruit, with fruits; faciō, cōn-faciō, cōn-ficiō, I make, I accomplish; factus, īn-factus, īn-fectus, made, not made; damnō, con-damnō, condemnō, I doom, I condemn; teneō, con-teneō, con-tineō, I hold, I contain; cadō, ca-cad-ī, ce-cid-ī, I fall, I have fallen; tuba, tuba-cen, tubi-cen, a flute, a flute-player.

³ That is, the open a is changed either to the close u through the medial o, as seen on the right side of the following vowel-triangle, or to the close i through the medial e, as seen on the left side:

Open vowel					\boldsymbol{a}
Medial vowels				в	0
Close vowels				i	. u

⁴ The syllable men was originally man. The original a has been weakened to e in carmen and to i in carmin-is.

¹ See Corssen, II., pp. 1-486. The process by which vowels are shortened (21), weakened, or dropped (27), and by which diphthongs are weakened to single vowels, and consonants assimilated, or otherwise changed, is generally known as Phonetic Decay. It may result from indistinct articulation, or from an effort to secure ease of utterance. For a difficult sound, or combination of sounds, it substitutes one which requires less physical effort.

² But u, ϵ , and i differ so slightly in strength that they appear at times to be simply interchanged.

2. Vowels are often weakened without any such special cause: 1

Puerom, puerum, a boy; fīlios, fīlius, son; sont, sunt, they are; regont, regunt, they rule; decumus, decimus, tenth; māxumus, māximus, greatest; lēgitumus, lēgitimus, lawful; aestumō, aestimō, I estimate.

- 23. Two successive vowels are sometimes contracted:
- 1. Into a diphthong: mēnsā-ī, mēnsai, mēnsae, tables; see 4.
- 2. More frequently into a Long vowel. In this case the second vowel generally disappears. Thus e and i often disappear after a, e, and o:

Amāverat, amaerat, amārat, he had loved; amāvisse, amaisse, amāsse, to have loved; flēvērunt, flērunt, flērunt, they have wept; nōvisse, noisse, nōsse, to know; servoī, servō, for the slave.

Note.—The proper diphthongs of early Latin were changed or weakened as follows:

- ai 2 generally into ae; sometimes into ē or I.
- oi generally into oe; sometimes into ū or ī.
- ei generally into i; sometimes unchanged.
- au sometimes into ō or ū; generally unchanged.
- eu generally into ū; rarely unchanged.
- ou regularly into ū.

Aidīlis, aedīlis, an aedile; Rōmai, Rōmae, at Rome; amaimus, amēmus, let us love; in-caedit, in-cīdit, he cuts into; mēnsais, mēnsīs, with tables; foidus, foedus, treaty; coira, coera, cūra, care; loidos, loedus, lūdus,³ play; puerois, puerīs, for the boys; ceivis, cīvis, citizen; lautus, lūtus,⁴ elegant; ex-claudō, ex-clūdō, I shut out; doucit, dūcit, he leads; jous, jūs,⁵ right.

24. Vowels are sometimes changed through the influence of the consonants which follow them. Thus—

¹ That is, by the ordinary process of phonetic decay, a process which in many words has changed an original a of the parent language to a or a in Latin, and in some words to a or a. Corssen cites upward of four hundred Latin words in which he supposes a primitive a to have been weakened to a, a, or a. Even the long vowels are sometimes weakened. Compare the following forms, in which the Sanskrit retains the vowel of the parent language.

8	anskrit. sapta, nava, daça, mātā,	LATIN. septem, novem, decem, mater,	English. seven. nine. ten. mother.	SANSKRIT. padas, navas, vāk, vācas,	LATIN. pedēs, novus, vōx, vōcis,	English. feet. new. voice. of a voice.
	sadas,	sēdēs,	seat.	vācam,	vocem,	voice.

² The forms ai, oi, ei, au, eu, and ou are all found in early Latin, as in inscriptions; but in the classical period ai had been already changed to ae, oi to oe, and ou to a.

³ Loidos, the earliest form, became loedus by weakening oi to oe, and o to u (22, 2); then loedus became $l\bar{u}dus$ by weakening oe to \bar{u} .

4 Lautus, the earlier, is also the more approved form.

⁶ As eu and ou were both weakened to \bar{u} , it is not easy to give trustworthy examples of the weakening of eu to \bar{u} .

1. **E** is the favorite vowel before r, x, or two or more consonants:

Cinisis, cineris (31), of ashes; jūdix, jūdex, judge; mīlitis, mīlets, mīles, of a soldier, a soldier.

Note.—E final is also a favorite vowel: serve, 8 serve, O slave; monēris, monēri, monēre, you are advised; mari, mare, sea.

2. I is the favorite vowel before n, s, and t:

Homonis, hominis, of a man; pulver or pulvis, dust; salūtes, salūtes, ot safety; vērotās, vēritās, truth; genetor, genitor, father.

3. **U** is the favorite vowel before l and m, especially when followed by another consonant:

Epistola, epistula, letter; volt, vult, he wishes; facilitās, faciltās (27), facultās, faculty; monēmentum, monumentum, monument; colomna, columna, column.

- 25. Assimilation.—A vowel is often assimilated by a following vowel. Thus—
- 1. A vowel before another vowel is often partially sassimilated. I is thus changed to e before a, o, or u: ia, ea, this; $i\delta$, $e\delta$, I go; iunt, eunt, they go; iadem, eadem, same; $d\bar{i}vus$, $d\bar{i}us$ (36, 4), deus, god.

Note.—When the first vowel is thus adapted to the second, the assimilation is said to be repressive, but sometimes the second vowel is adapted to the first, and then the assimilation is progressive. Thus the ending id (21, 2), instead of becoming ea as above, may become ie: lūwuriā (perhaps for lāwuriās), lūwuriēs, luxury; māteriā, māteriēs, material.

- 2. A vowel may be completely assimilated by the vowel of the following syllable from which it is separated by a consonant. Thus—
- E is assimilated to i: mehi, mihi, for me; tebi, tibi, for you; sebi, sibi, for himself; nehil, nihil, nothing.
- 2) U is assimilated to i: $c\bar{o}nsulium$, $c\bar{o}nsilium$, counsel; exsulium, exsilium, exile.
- 3) Other vowels are sometimes assimilated; o to e: bonē, benē, benē (21, 2), well; e to u: tegurium, tugurium, hut; ē to ō: sēcors, sōcors, stupid.
 - 26. DISSIMILATION.—A vowel is often changed by dissimilation,

¹ Cinisis, from cinis, becomes cineris by changing s to r between two vowels, making ciniris (31, 1), and by then changing i to e before r.

Observe that the vowel which appears as i in militis before t, takes the form of e in milets before ts, as also in miles for milets.

³ Monēris becomes monēre by dropping s (36, 5), and changing final i to e.

⁴ Observe that the form in r has e, while that in s has i.

⁵ That is, it is made like it, adapted to it, but does not become identical with it. Thus i before a may be changed to e, but not to a.

⁶ Thus from nouns in $i\bar{a}$ of the first declension were developed nearly all nouns in $i\bar{c}s$ of the fifth.

i. e., by being made unlike the following vowel: $i\bar{i}$, $e\bar{i}$, these; $i\bar{i}s$, $e\bar{i}s$, for these.

Note.—The combination ii is sometimes avoided by the use of e in place of the second i: pietas instead of piitas, piety; societas, society; varietas, variety.

27. Vowels are often dropped in the middle or at the end of words, sometimes even at the beginning:

Tempulum, templum, temple; vinculum, vinclum, band; benigenus, benīgnus, benignant; amaŏ, amŏ, I love; temploa, templa, temples; animāle, animal, an animal; sī-ne, sīn, if not; dīce, dīc, say; esum, sum, I am; esumus, sumus, we are.

Note.—After a word ending in a vowel or in m, est, he is, often drops the initial e, and becomes attached to the preceding word: $r\bar{e}s$ optuma est, $r\bar{e}s$ optumast, the thing is best; optumum est, optumumst, it is best; dont est, dont est, he is at home. In the same way es, thou art, is sometimes attached to the preceding word, when that word ends in a vowel: $hom\bar{o}$ es, $hom\bar{o}s$, you are a man. For the loss of a final s from the preceding word, see 36, 5, 1), note.

II. INTERCHANGE OF VOWELS AND CONSONANTS.

28. The vowel i and the consonant i—also written j—are sometimes interchanged :

Altior, higher; magior, māior or mājor, greater; ipstus, of himself; ēius or ējus, of him.

29. The vowel u and the consonant u—generally written v—are often interchanged:

Col-uī,⁵ I have cultivated; rocā-vī,⁵ I have called; nāvita, nāvta, nauta, sailor; volvtus, rolūtus, rolled; lavtus, lautus or lōtus,⁶ washed; movtus, moutus, mōtus,⁶ moved.

Note.—The Liquids and Nasals are sometimes so fully vocalized as to develop vowels

¹ The combination uu was also avoided in early Latin either by retaining the second vowel in the form of o, instead of weakening it to u, or by changing qu to c: equos, afterward equus, a horse; quom, or cum, afterward, though not properly in classical times, quum, when. Observe that when o becomes u, a preceding qu becomes c: quom, cum; loquōtus, locutus, having spoken. See Brambach, p. 5.

² See 16, note 2.

³ Observe that after e is dropped, \bar{a} is shortened in the final syllable: $anim\bar{a}l$, $anim\bar{a}l$; see 21, 2.

⁴ In the comparative ending ior, as seen in altior, i is a vowel, but in the same ending, as seen in maior, major, it is a consonant, and in this grammar is generally written j. I thus becomes j between two vowels; see 2, 4, foot-note. So in the genitive ending ius, i is sometimes a vowel and sometimes a consonant.

⁵ The ending which appears as $u\bar{\imath}$ in col- $u\bar{\imath}$ becomes $v\bar{\imath}$ in $voc\bar{a}$ - $v\bar{\imath}$. U becomes v between two yowels.

⁶ If a vowel precedes the v thus changed to u, a contraction takes place—a-u becoming au, rarely \bar{o} , o-u becoming \bar{o} , and u-u becoming \bar{u} : lavtus, lautus, lōtus, washed; movtus, moutus, mōtus, moved; juvtus, jūtus, assisted,

before them. Thus agr (for agrus) becomes ager,? field; $\bar{a}cr$ (for $\bar{a}cris$), $\bar{a}cer$,? sharp; regm, regem, king; sm (for esm), sum, I am; snt (for esnt), sunt, they are.

III. CHANGES IN CONSONANTS.

30. A Guttural—c, g, q (qu), or h —before s generally unites with it and forms x:

Ducs, dux, leader; pācs, pāx, peace; rēgs, rēcs, rēx, king; lēgs, lēcs, lēx, law; coqusī, cocsī, coxī, I have cooked; trahsī, tracsī, traxī, I have drawn.

Note 1.-V for gv in $v\bar{v}v\bar{o}$, I live, is treated as a guttural: $v\bar{v}v\bar{s}\bar{i}$, $v\bar{s}c\bar{s}\bar{i}$, $v\bar{s}x\bar{s}\bar{i}$, I have lived.

Note 2.—For the Dropping of the Guttural before s, see 36, 3.

31. S is often changed to r:

1. Generally so when it stands between two vowels: floses, flores, flowers; jūsa, jūra, rights; mēnsāsum, mēnsārum, of tables; agrosum, agrorum, of fields; esam, eram, I was; esāmus, erāmus, we were; fuēsunt, fuērunt, they have been; fuesit, fuerit, he will have been; amāset, amāret, he would love; regisis, regeris, o you are ruled.

2. Often at the end of words: honor, honor; robos, robus, robur, strength; puesus, puerus, puer, boy; regituse, regiture, regitur, he is ruled.

3. Sometimes before m, n, or v: casmen, carmen, song; vetesnus, veternus, old; hodiesnus, hodiernus, of this day; Minesva, Minerva, the goddess Minerva.

32. D is sometimes changed to 1:

Dacrima, lacrima, tear; dingua, lingua, language; od≷re, olère, to emit an odor.

Note 1.—D final sometimes stands in the place of an original t:id, this; istud, that; illud, that; quod, quid, what, which?

Note 2.—Dv at the beginning of a word (1) sometimes becomes b: dvellum, bellum, war; dvis, bis, twice; (2) sometimes drops d: dviginti, viginti, viginti, twenty; and (3) sometimes drops v: dvis, dis, inseparable particle (308), in two, asunder.

33. Partial Assimilation.—A consonant is often partially ¹⁰ assimilated by a following consonant. Thus—

¹ This occurs between consonants and at the end of words after consonants.

² The ending us or is is dropped (36, 5, 2), note), and r final vocalized to er; m becomes em in regem, and um in sum; n becomes un in sunt.

³ Sometimes gu: exstingusī, exstincsī, exstinxī, I have extinguished.

⁴ For an original gh.

⁵ The process seems to be that the guttural before s first becomes c, and then unites with s and forms x: thus in cogus, qu becomes c.

⁶ Observe that i before s becomes e before r: see 24.

⁷ Here s was probably changed to r before the final vowel was dropped.

⁸ Literally, he rules himself.

⁹ For it, istut, etc. D stands for t also in the old Ablative in d: praedād for praedāt, afterward praedā, with booty; magistrātād for magistrātūt, magistrātū, from the magistracy.

¹⁰ That is, it is adapted or accommodated to it, but does not become the same letter.

1. Before the surd s or t, a sonant b or g is generally changed to its corresponding surd, p^1 or c:

Scrībsī, scrīpsī, I have written; scrībtus, scrīptus, written; rēgsī, rēcsī, rēxī (30), I have ruled; rēgtus, rēctus, ruled. See also 35, 3, note.

Note.—Qu, h for gh, and v for gv are also changed to c before s and t: $cogust_i^2$ $cogst_i$, $cogt_i$, $cogust_i$, cog

2. Before a sonant 1, m, n, or r, a surd c, p, or t is generally changed to its corresponding sonant, g, b, or d:

Neclegŏ, neglegŏ, I neglect; sec-mentum, segmentum, a cutting; populicus, pūplicus, pūblicus, public; quatra, quadra, a square; quatrāgintā, quadrāgintā, forty.

3. Before a Labial p or b, n is generally changed to m:8

Inperő, imperő, I command; inperator, imperator, commander; inbellis, imbellis, unwarlike.

Note.—Before n, a Labial p or b is changed to m in a few words: sopnus, somnus, sleep; Sabnium, Samnium, the country of the Samnites.

- 4. M is changed to n-
- 1) Regularly before a Dental Mute:

Eumdem, eundem, the same; eōrumdem, eōrundem, of the same; quemdam, quendam, a certain one; tamtus, tantus, so great; quamtus, quantus, how great, as great.

2) Often before a Guttural Mute:

Hum-ce, hunc, this; num-ce, nunc, onow; prīm-ceps, prīnceps, first; nūm-quam or nūnquam, onever; quamquam or quanquam, although.

 T Qu, also written qv, is not a syllable; nor is u or v in this combination either a vowel or a consonant, but simply a parasitic sound developed by q, which is never found without it,

3 For tragheit; h is dropped, and q assimilated to c.

4 For gvigvsit; the first g and the second v are dropped; vigsit, vicsit, vixit.

5 From populus, the people.

⁶ P is changed to b, and o is weakened to u; see 22.

7 From quattuor, four.

8 That is, the dental n becomes the labial m.

¹ But b is generally retained (1) before s in nouns in bs: urbs, not urps, city, and in abs, from; and (2) before s and t in ob, on account of, and sub, under, in compounds and derivatives: ob-servāns, observant; ob-tāsus, obtuse; sub-scrībō, I subscribe; sub-ter, under. In these cases, however, b takes the sound of p, so that assimilation takes place in pronunciation, though not in writing. It is probable also that in some other consonants assimilation was observed even when omitted in writing: inprīmīs and imprīmīs, both pronounced imprīmīs. See Roby, I., p. lvii.; Munro, p. 10.

^{9 &}quot;Or" placed between two forms denotes that both are in good use: numquam or nunquam. In other cases the last is the only approved form: nune, princeps.

Note 1.—Before the ending -que, m is generally retained: 1 quicumque, whoever; quemque, every one; namque, for indeed.

Note 2.—Quom-iam or quom-jam becomes quoniam, since.

- 34. A consonant is often completely assimilated by a following consonant. Thus—
 - 1. T or d is often assimilated before n or s:

Petna, penna, feather; mercēdnārius, mercēnnārius, mercenary; concutsit, concussit, he has shaken.

Note.—M before s is sometimes assimilated, and sometimes develops p: premsit, pressit, he has pressed; sumsit, sumpsit, he has taken.

2. D, n, or r is often assimilated before 1:

Sedula, sedla (27), sella, seat; ūnulus, ūnlus (27), ūllus, any; puerula, puerla, puella, girl.

3. B, g, or n is often assimilated before m:

Sub-moveŏ or sum-moveŏ, I remove; supmus, summus, highest; flagma, flamma, flame; inmōtus or immōtus, unmoved.

Note.—For Assimilation in Prepositions in Composition, see 344, 5.

- 35. Dissimilation.—The meeting of consonants too closely related and the recurrence of the same consonant in successive syllables are sometimes avoided by changing one of the consonants. Thus—
 - 1. Caeluleus becomes caeruleus, azure; medī-diēs, merīdiēs, midday.
- 2. Certain suffixes of derivation have two forms, one with r to be used after l, and one with l to be used after $r:^2$ āris, ālis; burum, brum, bulum; burum, crum, culum:

Populāris, popular; rēgālis, kingly; dēlūbrum, shrine; tribulum, threshing-sledge; sepulorum, sepulchre; perīculum, peril.

- 3. A Dental Mute—d or t—may unite with a following t in two ways:
- 1) Dt or tt may become st:5

Edt, ēst, he eats; rödtrum, röstrum, a beak; equettris, equestris, equestrian.

2) Dt or tt may become ss or s:6

Fodtus, fōssus, dug; vidtus, vīsus, seen; plaudtus, plausus, praised; mettus, messus, reaped; verttus, versus, turned.

¹ But probably with the sound of n; see p. 17, foot-note 1.

. ² This distinction is, however, not always observed. The form with l, probably weakened from that with r, became the favorite form, and was generally used if l did not precede.

³ From burum are formed (1) brum by dropping u, and (2) bulum by weakening r into l. In the same way crum and culum are formed from curum.

⁴ In *populāris*, āris is used because l precedes; but in rēgālis, ālis is used because r precedes. When neither l nor r precedes, the weakened form ālis is used.

⁵ Here d or t is changed to s by Dissimilation.

6 In regard to the exact process by which dt or tt becomes ss or s, there is a diversity of opinion among philologians. See Papillon, p. 75; Roby, p. 62; Corssen, I., p. 208.

Note.—Lqt may become ls; 1 rqt, rs; 1 llt, ls; 2 and rrt, rs: 2 mulgtus, mulsus, milked; spargtus, sparsus, scattered; falltus, falsus, false; verrtus, versus, swept.

- 36. Omission.—Consonants are sometimes dropped. Thus—
- Some words which originally began with two consonants have dropped the first:

Clāmentum, 3 lāmentum, lamentation; gnātus, nātus, born; gnōtus, 4 nōtus, known; dvīgintī, vīgintī, twenty; sfallit, fallit, he deceives.

2. A Dental Mute-d or t-before s is generally dropped: 5

Lapids, lapis, stone; aetāts, aetās, age; mīlets, mīles, soldier; claudsī, clausī, I have closed.

Note.—D is occasionally dropped before other consonants: hod-ce, $h\bar{o}c\bar{e}$, $h\bar{o}c$, this; quod-circ \bar{a} , $qu\bar{o}circ\bar{a}$, \bar{e} for which reason: ad- $gn\bar{o}sc\bar{o}$, \bar{d} $gn\bar{o}sc\bar{o}$, \bar{I} recognize.

- 3. A Guttural Mute-c, g, or q (qu)-is generally dropped-
- 1) Between a Liquid and s:

Mulcsit, mulsit, he has appeased; fulgsit, fulsit, it has lightened.

2) Between a Liquid and t:

Fulctus, fultus, propped; sarctus, sartus, repaired.

3) Between a Liquid and m:

Fulgmen, fulmen, lightning; torqumentum, tormentum, engine for hurling missiles.

Note 1.—A Guttural Mute is occasionally dropped in other situations.⁷ Thus—

- 1. C before m or n: lūcmen, lūmen, light; lūcna, lūna, moon.
- 2. C between n and d or t: quinctus, quintus, fifth; quincdecim, quindecim, fifteen.
- 3. G before m or v: s exagmen, eximen (20, 1), a swarm; jugmentum, jūmentum, beast of burden; magvult, māvult, he prefers; bregvis, brevis, short.

Note 2.—X is sometimes dropped: sexdecim, sēdecim (20, 1), sixteen; sexnī, sēnī, six each; texula, texla, tēla, a web; axula, axla, āla, wing.

Note 3.—N, r, and s are sometimes dropped: in-gnotus, ignotus, unknown; formonsus, formosus, beautiful; quotiens, 10 quoties, how often; deciens, decies, 10 ten

- 1 T is changed to s, and g is dropped.
- ² T is changed to s, and one l is dropped in llt, and one r in rrt.
- 3 Compare clāmo, I cry out.
- 4 Seen in i-quotus, ignotus, unknown,
- ⁵ Probably first assimilated and then dropped: lapids, lapiss, lapis. But the dental is sometimes assimilated and retained: cēdsī, cēssī, I have yielded: concutsit, concussit, he has shaken.
 - 6 O lengthened in compensation; see 20, 1.
- ⁷ Sextius becomes Sēstius, a proper name; sexcentī, sēscentī, six hundred; and mīxtus, mīstus, mixed, by dropping the mute contained in the double consonant x.
 - ⁸ G has also been dropped in āiō for agiō, I say; mājor for magior, greater, etc.
- 9 In numerals nt is sometimes dropped: ducentnī, ducēnī, two hundred each; vī-gent-simus or vīcent-simus, vīgēsimus or vīcēsimus, twentieth.
 - 10 So in all numeral adverbs in iens, ies. The approved ending in most numeral

times; mulier-bris, muliebris, womanly; prorsa, prosa, prose; isdem, idem, same; jūs-dex, jūdex, judge; audīsne, audīne, audīn, do you hear? vīsne, vīne, vīn, do you wish?

4. A Semivowel-j or v, also written i or u-is often dropped:

Bi-jugae, biugae, bīgae, chariot with two horses; quadri-jugae, quadrīgae, chariot with four horses; con-junctus, cō-junctus, cūnctus, the whole; abjició or abició, I throw away; dīvitior, diitior, dītior, richer; nevoló, neoló, nöló, I am unwilling; amāverat, amaerat, amārat, he had loved.²

Note.—Separate words are sometimes united after the loss of $v: \tilde{s}\tilde{i}$ $v\tilde{i}s$, $s\tilde{i}\tilde{s}s$, $s\tilde{i}s$, is you wish; $s\tilde{i}$ vullis, $s\tilde{i}$ llis, $s\tilde{u}$ llis, if you wish.

- 5. Final consonants are often dropped. Thus-
- 1) Final s is often dropped:3

Monèris, monère (24,1, note), you are advised; illus, illu, ille, that; istus, istu, iste, that of yours; ipsus, ipsu, ipse, self, he; parricidas, parricide; magis or mage, more; sīvīs, sīve, whether, lit., if you wish.

Note.—In the early poets es, thou art, and est, he is, after having dropped the initial e, sometimes become attached to the preceding word, which has lost its final s: veritus es, veritu's, you feared; tempus est, tempust, it is time; virtus est, virtust, it is virtue. See 27, note.

2) A final d or t is often dropped:

Cord, cor, heart; praedād, praedā, with booty; intrād, intrā, within; facilumēd, facillimē, most easily; vēnērunt, vēnēru, vēnēre, they have come; rēxērunt, rēxēre, they have ruled.

Note.—Sometimes both a vowel and a consonant disappear at the end of a word: puerus, puer, boy (51, 2, 4)); deinde or dein, thereupon; nihilum or nihil, nothing.

3) A final n⁸ is generally dropped in the Nominative Singular from stems in on:

Leon, leo, lion; praedon, praedo, robber; homon, homo, man.

adverbs is ies, but in those formed from indefinite numerals, as tot, quot, it is iens: totiens, quotiens.

¹ This is the approved form in verbs compounded of $jaci\delta$ and monosyllabic prepositions; but $abici\delta$ is pronounced as if written $abjici\delta$ or $ab-iici\delta$, i. e., i=ji, pronounced ye by the Roman method. The syllable ab thus remains long.

² Several adverbial forms were produced by the loss of v with the attendant changes: revorsus, reorsus, rürsus, back; subsvorsum, suevorsum, suorsum, sürsum, from be-

low, on high.

- 3 In early inscriptions proper names in os, afterward us, occur without the s as often as with it: Rôscios, Rôscio; Gabinios, Gabinio.
 - 4 This form actually occurs in early Latin.
- ⁵ The Ablative singular ended anciently in d, originally t. Many prepositions and adverbs in \bar{a} and \bar{e} are ablatives in origin, and accordingly ended in d.
 - 6 Written with one l, afterward with two.
- ⁷ Here final t was first dropped, then n, having become final, also disappeared, and at last final u was weakened to e; see 24, 1, note.
 - 8 In early inscriptions final m is often dropped.

PART SECOND.

ETYMOLOGY.

- 37. ETYMOLOGY treats of the classification, inflection, and derivation of words.
- 38. The Parts of Speech are—Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

CHAPTER I.

NOUNS.

- 39. A Noun or Substantive is a name, as of a person, place, or thing: Cicerö, Cicero; Rōma, Rome; domus, house.
- 1. A Proper Noun is a proper name, as of a person or place: $Cicer\~o$, $R\~oma$.
- 2. A COMMON NOUN is a name common to all the members of a class of objects: vir, man; equus, horse. Common nouns include—
- 1) Collective Nouns, designating a collection of objects: populus, people; exercitus, army.
- Abstract Nouns, designating properties or qualities: virtūs, virtue; jūstitia, justice.
- 3) Material Nouns, designating materials as such: aurum, gold; hgnum, wood; aqua, water.
 - 40. Nouns have Gender, Number, Person, and Case.

I. GENDER.

41. There are three genders'—Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

Note.—In some nouns gender is determined by signification; in others, by endings.

¹ In English, Gender denotes sex. Accordingly, masculine nouns denote males; feminine nouns, females; and neuter nouns, objects which are neither male nor female. In Latin, however, this natural distinction of gender is applied only to the names of males and females; while, in all other nouns, gender depends upon an artificial distinction according to grammatical rules.

42. GENERAL RULES FOR GENDER.

- I. MASCULINES.
- 1. Names of Males: Cicero; vir, man; rex, king.
- 2. Names of Rivers, Winds, and Months: Rhēnus, Rhine; Notus, south wind; Mārtius, March.
 - II. FEMININES.
 - 1. Names of Females: mulier, woman; leaena, lioness.
- 2. Names of Countries, Towns, Islands, and Trees: Graecia, Greece; Rōma, Rome; Dēlos, Delos; pirus, peartree.

Note.—Indeclinable nouns, infinitives, and all clauses used as nouns are neuter: alpha, the letter a. See also 532.

43. REMARKS ON GENDER.

- 1. EXCEPTIONS.—The endings 3 of nouns sometimes give them a gender at variance with these rules. Thus, some names of rivers, countries, towns, islands, trees, and animals take the gender of their endings; see 53, 1.
- 2. MASCULINE OR FEMININE.—A few personal appellatives applicable to both sexes and a few names of animals are sometimes *masculine* and sometimes *feminine*, but when used without distinct reference to sex they are generally *masculine*: cīvis, citizen (man or woman); bōs, ox, cow.
- 3. EPICENE Nouns apply only to the inferior animals. They are used for both sexes, but have only one gender, and that is usually determined by their endings: ānser, goose, masculine; aquila, eagle, feminine.

II. PERSON AND NUMBER.

44. The Latin, like the English, has three persons and two numbers. The first person denotes the speaker; the second, the person spoken to; the third, the person spoken of. The singular number denotes one, the plural more than one.

III. CASES.4

45. The Latin has six cases:

¹ Except names of persons.

² See 128, 1.

³ Gender as determined by the endings of nouns will be noticed in connection with the several declensions.

⁴ The case of a noun shows the relation which that noun sustains to other words; as, John's book. Here the possessive case (John's) shows that John sustains to the book the relation of possessor.

NAMES. ENGLISH EQUIVALENTS.

Nominative, Nominative.

Genitive, Possessive, or Objective with of.

Dative, Objective with to or for.

Accusative, Objective.

Vocative, Nominative Independent.

Ablative, Objective with from, with, by, in.

1. Oblique Cases.—The Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative are called the Oblique Cases.

2. LOCATIVE.—The Latin has also a few remnants of another case, called the Locative, denoting the place in which.

DECLENSION.

- 46. STEM AND SUFFIXES.—The process by which the several cases of a word are formed is called Declension. It consists in the addition of certain suffixes to one common base called the stem.
- 1. Meaning.—Accordingly, each case-form contains two distinct elements—the stem, which gives the general meaning of the word, and the case-suffix, which shows the relation of that meaning to some other word. Thus, in reg-is, of a king, the general idea, king, is denoted by the stem reg; the relation of, by the suffix is.
 - 2. Cases alike.—But certain cases are not distinguished in form.
- The Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative in Neuters are alike, and in the plural end in a.
- 2) The Nominative and Vocative are alike, except in the singular of nouns in us of the second declension (51).2
 - 3) The Dative and Ablative Plural are alike.
- 3. Characteristic.—The last letter of the stem is called the Stem-Characteristic, or the Stem-Ending.
- 47. FIVE DECLENSIONS.—In Latin there are five declensions, distinguished from each other by the *stem-characteristics* or by the *endings* of the *Genitive Singular*, as follows:

¹ Moreover, in many words the stem itself is derived from a more primitive form called a *Root*. For the distinction between *roots* and *stems*, and for the manner in which the latter are formed from the former, see 313-318.

² And in some nouns of Greek origin.

	CHARACTERISTICS.	GENITIVE ENDINGS.
DEC. I.	ă	ае
II.	0	ī
III.	i or a consc	onant is
${f IV}$	u	
\mathbf{V}_{\bullet}	ĕ	ĕī

Note 1.—The five declensions are only five varieties of one general system of inflection, as the case-suffixes are nearly identical in all nouns,

Note 2.—But these case-suffixes appear distinct and unchanged only in nouns with consonant-stems, while in all others they are seen only in combination with the characteristic, i. e., with the final vowel of the stem.

NOTE 8.—The ending produced by the union of the case-suffix with the characteristic vowel may for convenience be called a CASE-ENDING.

FIRST DECLENSION: A NOUNS.

48. Nouns of the first declension end in

a and ē-feminine; ās and ēs-masculine.1

Nouns in α are declined as follows:

		INGULAR.		
EXAMP	LE.	MEA	NING. C	ase-Ending.
Nom. mēr	nsa,	а	table,2	a ³
Gen. mēr	isae,	of a	table,	ae
· Dat. mēr	ıs ae ,	to, for a	table,	ae
Acc. mēr	ıs am ,	a	table,	am
Voc. mēn	ısa,	0	table,	a
Abl. mēr	ns ā ,	from, with, by a	table,4	ā
	1	PLURAL.		
Nom. mēn	is ae ,		tables,	ae
Gen. mēr	s ārum ,	of	tables,	ārum
Dat. mēr	ns īs ,	to, for	tables,	13
Acc. mēr	ıs as ,		tables,	ās
Voc. mēr	ıs ae ,	0	tables,	ae
Abl. mēr	ns īs ,	from, with, by	$tables.^4$	īs

¹ That is, nouns of this declension in a and \bar{e} are feminine, and those in $\bar{a}s$ and $\bar{e}s$ are masculine.

² The Nom, mensa may be translated a table, table, or the table: see 48.6.

³ These case-endings will serve as a practical guide to the learner in distinguishing the different cases. The two elements which originally composed them have undergone various changes, and in certain cases the one or the other has nearly or quite disappeared. Thus the suffix has disappeared in the Nominative and Vocative Singular, and appears only as e in four other case-forms, while the characteristic a has disappeared in the ending $\bar{\epsilon}_e$, contracted from a- $i\epsilon_e$, in the Dative and Ablative Plural; see 23, 2, note.

⁴ Still other prepositions, as in, on, at, are sometimes used in translating the Ablative.

- 1. Stem .- In nouns of the first declension, the stem ends in a.
- 2. In the Paradigm, observe that the stem is mēnsā, and that the several cases are distinguished from each other by their case-endings.
 - 3. Examples for Practice.—Like mēnsa decline:

Āla, wing; aqua, water; causa, cause; fortūna, fortune.

4. Locative.—Names of towns and a very few other words have a Locative Singular¹ in ae, denoting the *place in which* (45, 2), and are declined in the singular² number as follows:

Nom.	Roma, Rome,	mīliti a , war,³
Gen.	Romae, of Rome,	mīlitiae, of war,
Dat.	Romae, for Rome,3	mīlitiae, for war,
Acc.	Romam, Rome,	mīliti am , war,
Voc.	Roma, O Rome,	mīliti a , O war,
Abl.	Roma, from Rome,3	mīlitiā, from war,
Loc.	Romae, at Rome.	mīliti ae , in war.

- 5. EXCEPTIONS IN GENDER.—1. A few nouns in a are masculine by signification: agricola, husbandman; see 42, I.—2. Hadria, Adriatic Sea, is masculine; sometimes also dāmma, deer, and talpa, mole.
- 6. ARTICLE.—The Latin has no article: corona, crown, a crown, the crown; ala, wing, a wing, the wing.
 - 49. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS.—The following occur: 4
- 1. ās in the Genitive of familia, in composition with pater, mater, filius, and filia: paterfamilias, father of a family.
- 2. āī, an old form for the Genitive ending ae, in the poets: 5 aulāī, afterward aulae, of a hall.
- 3. $\bar{u}m^6$ in the Genitive Plural: $Dardanid\bar{u}m$ for $Dardanid\bar{a}rum$, of the descendants of Dardanus.
- 4. ābus in the Dative and Ablative Plural, especially in dea, goddess, and filia, daughter, to distinguish them from the same cases of deus, god, and filius, son: deābus for deīs, to goddesses.

¹ In the Plural of all nouns the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative: Athēnīs, at Athens. Whether, however, the form Athēnīs is in origin a Locative, an Ablative, or neither, is a disputed question. See Bopp, I., pp. 484 seq.; Schleicher, pp. 586, 587; Penka, p. 194; Delbrück, p. 27; Merguet, pp. 116, 117; Wordsworth, p. 59. In most nouns the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative in both numbers.

² The Plural when used is like the Plural of mēnsa.

³ For the other prepositions which may be used in translating the Dative and the Ablative, see 45. *Militia*, war, warfare, military service.

[•] To these must be added for early Latin \bar{a} in the Nom. and Voc. Sing. and $\bar{a}\bar{d}$ in the Abl. Sing.; see 21, 2, 1), and 36, 5, 2).

⁵ Also in inscriptions as the ending of the Genitive, Dative, and Locative.

⁶ Contracted from a-um like the Greek ά-ων, ῶν.

Note.—Nouns in ia sometimes have is for iis in the Dative and Ablative Plural: $gr\bar{a}tis$ for $gr\bar{a}tis$, from $gr\bar{a}tia$, favor, kindness.

50. GREEK NOUNS.—Nouns of this declension in ē, ās, and ēs are of Greek origin, and are declined as follows:

Epitomē, epitome.	Aenēās, Aeneas.	Pyrītēs, pyrites.
	SINGULAR.	
Nom. epitom €	A enē $ar{a}s$	pyrît ës
Gen. epitom ēs	Aenē ae	pyrīt ae
Dat. epitomae	A enē ae	pyrīt ae
Acc. epitomen	Aenē am , ān	pyrīt ēn
Voc. epitom&	Aenē ā	pyrīt ē , a
Abl. epitom€	\mathbf{A} enē $\mathbf{ar{a}}$	pyrīt ē , ā
	PLURAL,	
Nom. epitomae		pyrīt ae
Gen. epitomārum		pyrīt ārum
Dat. epitom is		pyrīt īs
Acc. epitomās		pyrīt ās
Voc. epitomae		pyrīt ae
Abl. epitomIs		pyrīt īs

Note 1.—In the Plural and in the Dative Singular, Greek nouns are declined like mensa.

Note 2.—In nouns in \tilde{e} and $\tilde{e}s$, the stem-ending \tilde{a} is changed to \tilde{e} in certain cases. Note 3.—Many Greek nouns assume the Latin ending a, and are declined like $m\tilde{e}nsa$. Many in \tilde{e} have also a form in a: $epitom\tilde{e}$, epitoma, epitoma.

SECOND DECLENSION: O NOUNS.

51. Nouns of the second declension end in

er, ir, us, and os '-masculine; um, and on-neuter. Nouns in er, ir, us, and um are declined as follows:

Servus, 2 slave. Puer, boy. Ager, field. Templum, temple.

		SINGULA	R.	
Nom.	servus 3	puer	ager	templum
Gen.	servī	puer 1	agr ī -	templī
Dat.	servo	puerō	agrō	$\operatorname{templ}{m{\bar{o}}}$
Acc.	servum	puerum	agrum	templum
Voc.	serve	puer	ager	templum
Abl.	servō	puerō	agr ō	$\mathbf{templ}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$

Sometimes ōs.

² Sometimes written servos; see 52, 1.

³ In the Roman and in the Continental pronunciation, quantity furnishes a safe guide

PLURAL.

Nom.	serv ī	puer I	agr ī	templa
Gen.	serv õrum	puer ōrum	agr ōrum	templ orum
Dat.	servīs	puer īs	agr īs	templ is
Acc.	serv ōs	puer ōs	agr ōs	templa
Voc.	servI	puerī	agrī	templa
Abl.	serv īs	puer īs	agr īs	templ īs

- 1. Stem.—In nouns of the second declension, the stem ends in o.
- 2. In the Paradigms, observe-
- 1) That the stems are servo, puero, agro, and templo.
- 2) That the characteristic o becomes **u** in the endings us and um, and **e** in serve, that it disappears by contraction in the endings a, i, and is (for o-a, o-i, and o-is), and is dropped in the forms puer and ager.
- 3) That the case-endings, including the characteristic o (47, N. 2), are as follows:

SINGULAR.				PLURAL.	
	MASC.	NEUT.		MASC.	NEUT.
Nom.	us 4	um	Nom.	ī	a
Gen.	ī	ī	Gen.	ōrum	ōrum
Dat.	ō	ō	Dat.	រីន	īs
Acc.	um	um .	Acc.	ōs	a
Voc.	e 4	um	Voc.	ī	a ·
Abl.	ō	ō	Abl.	īs	ĭs

- 4) That puer and ager differ in declension from servus in dropping the endings us and e in the Nominative and Vocative: Nom. puer for puerus, Voc. puer for puere.
 - 5) That e in ager is developed by the final r.5
- 6) That templum, as a neuter noun, has the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative alike, ending in the plural in a; see 46, 2, 1).
- 3. Examples for Practice.—Like servus: dominus, master. Like Puer: gener, son-in-law. Like ager: magister, master. Like templum: bellum, war.

to the sounds of the vowels; see 5. In the English method, on the contrary, the quantity of the vowels is entirely disregarded, except as it affects the accent of the word. Thus, a in ager is short in quantity, but long in sound (10, 3), while $\tilde{\imath}$ in $serv\tilde{\imath}s$, $puer\tilde{\imath}s$, $agr\tilde{\imath}s$, and $templ\tilde{\imath}s$ is long in quantity but short in sound (11, 1). Accordingly, in this method, the sounds of the vowels must be determined by the rules given in 9, 10 and 11. Moreover, the learner must not forget that when the quantity of the vowel is known, the quantity of the syllable, as used in poetry, is readily determined by article 16.

¹ See 22 and 24, 1, note.

² Shortened from \bar{a} ; see 21, 2, 1).

³ See 23, note, and 27.

⁴ The endings of the Nom. and Voc. Sing. are wanting in nouns in er.

⁵ See 29, note.

- 4. Nouns in **er** and **ir**.—Most nouns in *er* are declined like *ager*, but the following in *er* and *ir* are declined like *puer*:
 - 1) Nouns in ir: vir, virī, man.
- 2) Compounds in fer and ger: armiger, armigerī, armor-bearer; sīgnifer. sīgniferī, standard-bearer.
- 3) Adulter, adulterer; Celtiber, Celtiberian; gener, son-in-law; Iber, Spaniard; Līber, Bacchus; līberī, children; Mulciber, Vulcan; presbyter, elder; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening.
- 5. Nouns in ius generally contract iī in the Genitive Singular and ie in the Vocative Singular into $\bar{\imath}$ without change of accent: Claudī for Claudīi, of Claudius, $f\bar{\imath}l\bar{\imath}$ for $f\bar{\imath}li\bar{\imath}$, of a son; Mercu'rī for Mercu'rie, Mercury, $f\bar{\imath}l\bar{\imath}$ for $f\bar{\imath}lie$, son. In the Genitive Singular of nouns in ium the same contraction takes place: $inge'n\bar{\imath}$ for $inge'n\bar{\imath}$, of talent; see 18, 1.
- 6. Deus is thus declined: Sing. deus, deī, deō, deum, deus, deō: Plur. N. and V. deī, diī, dī; 3 G. deōrum, deūm; D. and A. deīs, diīs, dīs; 3 Acc. deōs.
- 7. NEUTERS IN us.—The three neuter nouns in us, 4 pelagus, sea, virus, poison, and vulgus, the common people, are declined in the singular as follows:

Nom., Acc., Voc.	pelagus	vīrus	vulgus•
Gen.	pelagī	vīrī	$vulg\bar{\imath}$
Dat., Abl.	pelagō	vīrō	vulgö

Note.—Pelagus is a Greek noun (54, N. 2), and in general is used only in the singular, though $pelag\bar{e}$ occurs as an Acc. Plur. $V\bar{v}rus$ and vulgus are used only in the singular. Vulgus has a masculine Acc., vulgum, in addition to the neuter form vulgus.

8. LOCATIVE.—Names of towns and a few other words have a Locative Singular ⁶ in **1**, denoting the *place in which* (45, 2), and are declined in the singular ⁷ number as follows:

Nom.	Ephesus, Ephesus,	bellum, war,
Gen.	EphesI, of Ephesus,	bella, of war,
Dat.	Epheso, for Ephesus,	bello, for war,
Acc.	Ephesum, Ephesus,	bellum, war,
Voc.	Ephese, O Ephesus,	bellum, O war,
Abl.	Epheso, from Ephesus,	bello, from, by war,
Loc.	Ephesī, at Ephesus.	bell¶, in war.

¹ Celtiber and Iber have e long in the Gen., and Mulciber sometimes drops e.

² Nouns in $\tilde{e}ius$ sometimes contract $\tilde{e}ie$ in the Voc. Sing. into $\tilde{e}i$; $Pomp\tilde{e}i$ or $Pomp\tilde{e}i$, Pompey.

³ Di and dis are the approved forms, but dei, dii and deis, diis also occur.

⁴ Originally s-stems which by the loss of s in the oblique cases have become o-stems; see 62, I., 1, foot-note.

⁵ Also written volgus.

⁶ In the Plural the Locative meaning is denoted by the Ablative: Gabiis, at Gabii; see 48, 4, foot-note.

⁷ The Plural, when used, is like the Plural of servus, puer, etc.

52. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS.—The following occur: 1

- 1. os and om, old endings for us and um, sometimes used after v and $u:^2$ servos for servus, servom for servum; mortuos for mortuus, dead.
 - 2. us for e in the Vocative of deus, god; rare in other words.
- 3. wim in the Genitive Plural, especially common in a few words denoting money, weight, and measure: talentūm for talentūrum, of talents; also in a few other words: deūm for deōrum; līberūm for līberōrum; Argīvūm for Argīvōrum.

Note.—The ending $\tilde{u}m$ occurs also in the Genitive Plural of many other words, especially in poetry.

- 53. Gender.—Nouns in er, ir, us, and os are masculine, those in um and on are neuter; except—
- 1. The Feminines:—(1) See 42, II., but observe that many names of countries, towns, islands, and trees follow the gender of their endings. (2) Most names of gems and ships are feminine: also alvus, belly; carbasus, sail; co'us, distaff; humus, ground; vannus, sieve. (3) A few Greek feminines.

2. The Neuters:—pelagus, sea; vīrus, poison; vulgus, common people. For declension, see 51, 7.

54. GREEK NOUNS.—Nouns of this declension in os, ōs, and on are of Greek origin, and are declined in the singular as follows:

Dēlos, F., Delos.	Androgeos, $Androgeos$.	Ilion, Ilion
Nom. Dēlos	${\bf Androge} \bar{\bf o} {\bf s}$	Īlion
Gen. Dēl ī	Androgeō, I	Īliī
$oldsymbol{Dat}$. Dēl $oldsymbol{ar{o}}$	Androge o	Īliō
Acc. Dēlon	Androgeon, o	Ilion
Voc. Dēle	Androge os	Īlion
Abl. Dēl ō	${ m Androge}ar{m{o}}$	Īliō

Note 1.—The Plural of nouns in os and on is generally regular, but certain Greek endings occur, as oe in the Nominative Plural, and $\bar{o}n$ in the Genitive.

NOTE 2.—Most Greek nouns generally assume the Latin forms in us and um, and are declined like servus and templum. Many in os or on have also a form in us or um.

Note 3.-For Greek nouns in eus, see 68 and 68, 1.

Note 4.—Panthūs has Voc. Panthū. For pelagus, see 51, 7, note.

¹ To these must be added for early Latin: 1) $\bar{o}\bar{d}$ in Abl. Sing., and \bar{a} in Nom., Acc., and Voc. of the Neut. Plur.; see 36, 5, 2), and 21, 2, 1); 2) oe in Gen. Sing.; oe, \bar{e} , $\bar{e}s$, eis, and $\bar{e}s$ in Nom. Plur.: poploe=populi; $ploirum\bar{e}=pl\bar{u}rim\bar{i}$; $vir\bar{e}s=vir\bar{i}$; leiberies or leiberies=liberi.

² Some recent editors have adopted vos, uos, vom and uom, for vus, uus, vum and uum, but the wisdom of such a course is at least questionable. See Brambach, p. 3.

³ M. stands for masculine, F. for feminine, and N. for neuter.

THIRD DECLENSION: CONSONANT AND I NOUNS.

55. Nouns of the third declension end in

a, e, ī, ŏ, y, c, l, n, r, s, t, and x.

- 56. Nouns of this declension may be divided into two classes:
 - I. Nouns whose stem ends in a Consonant.
 - II. Nouns whose stem ends in I.1

CLASS I.—CONSONANT STEMS.

57. Stems ending in a Labial: B or P.

Princeps, M., 2 a leader, chief.

		SINGULAR.	Case-Suffixes
Nom.	prīnceps,	a leader,	s
Gen.	prīncip is ,	of a leader,	is
Dat.	prīncip ī ,	to, for a leader,	ī
Acc.	prīncipem,	a leader,	\mathbf{em}
Voc.	prīnceps,	O leader,	s
Abl.	prīncipe,	from, with, by a leader,	e
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	prīncipēs,	leaders,	ēs
Gen.	prīncipum,	of leaders,	\mathbf{um}
Dat.	prīncip ibus ,	to, for leaders,	ibus
Acc.	prīncipēs,	leaders,	ēs
Voc.	prīncipēs,	O leaders,	ēs
Abl.	prīncip ibus ,	from, with, by leaders.	ibus

- 1. STEM AND CASE-SUFFIXES .- In this Paradigm observe-
- 1) That the stem is *princep*, modified before an additional syllable to *princip*; see 22, 1, and 57, 2.
- 2) That the case-suffixes appear distinct and separate from the stem; 3 see 46, 1, and 47, note 2.
- 2. Variable Vowel.—In the final syllable of dissyllabic consonant stems, short ${\bf e}$ or ${\bf i}$ generally takes the form of e in the Nominative and Vocative Singular and that of i in all the other cases. Thus princeps,

¹ For Gender, see 99-115.

² See foot-note 3, p. 29.

⁵ Thus, princep-s, princip-is, etc. In the first and second declensions, on the contrary, the suffix can not be separated from the final vowel of the stem in such forms as mēnsīs, puerī, agrīs, etc.

prīncipis, and jūdex, jūdicis (59), alike have e in the Nominative and Vocative Singular and i in all the other cases, though in prīnceps the original form of the radical vowel is e, and in jūdex, i. For a similar change in the vowel of the stem, see mīles, mīlitis (58), and carmen, carminis (60). See also opus, operis (61).

- 3. In monosyllables in bs the stem ends in i; see urbs, 64.
- 4. For the Locative in the Third Declension, see 66, 4.
- 5. For Synopsis of Declension, see 87, 89.

58. Stems ending in a Dental: D or T.

Lapis	s, M., stone.	Aetās, f., age.	Mīles, M., soldier.
		SINGULAR.	
Nom.	lapis	aetās	mīles
Gen.	lapid is	aetāt is	mīlit is
Dat.	lapidI	aetāt T	mīlit ī
Acc.	lapidem	aetāt em	mīlit em
Voc.	lapis	aetās	mīles
Abl.	lapide	aetāt $f e$	m īlit $oldsymbol{e}$
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	lapidēs	aetāt ēs	mîlit ēs
Gen.	lapidum	aetāt um	mīlit um
Dat.	lapidibus	aetāt ibus	mīlit ibus
Acc.	lapidēs	aetāt ēs	mīlit ēs
Voc.	lapidēs	aetāt ēs	mīlit ēs
Abl.	lapid ibus	aetāt ibus	mīlit ibus
Nepōs,	M., grandson.	Virtūs, f., virtue.	Caput, N., head.
		SINGULAR.	
Nom.	nepõs	virtūs	caput
Gen.	nepõt is	virtūt is	capitis
Dat.	nepōtI	virtūt ī	capit T
Acc.	nepōt em	virtūt em	caput
Voc.	nepōs	virtū s	caput
Abl.	$nep ilde{o}te$	virtūt e	- capite
		PLURAL.	
Nom.	nepõt ēs	virtūtēs	capita
Gen.	nepõt um	virtūtumm	capitum
Dat.	nepotibus	virtūt ibus	capit ibus

¹ See 22, 1.

² See 22, 1, foot-note.

Acc.	nepōt ēs	virtūt ēs	capita
Voc.	$nep\bar{o}t\bar{e}s$	virtūt ēs	capita
Abl.	nepōt ibus	virtūt ibus	capitibus

- 1. Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In these Paradigms observe—
- 1) That the stems are lapid, aetāt, mīlit, nepōt, virtūt, and caput.
- 2) That miles has the variable vowel, e, i, and caput, u, i; see 57, 2.
- 3) That the dental dort is dropped before s: lapis for lapids, aetās for aetāts, mīles for mīlets, virtūs for virtūts; see 36, 2.
- 4) That the case-suffixes, except in the neuter, caput (46, 2), are the same as those given above; see 57.
- 5) That the *neuter*, *caput*, has no case-suffix in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular, **a** in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural, and the suffixes of masculine and feminine nouns in the other cases.
- 2. Neuter stems in at drop t in the Nominative Singular and end in a: Nom., poēma, Gen., poēmatis; Stem, poēmat. These nouns sometimes have is for ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural: poēmatis for poēmatibus.

Jūdex, M. & F., Rādīx, F.,

Dux, M. & F.,

3. For Synopsis of Declension, see 69, 78-84.

Rēx, M.,

59. Stems ending in a Guttural: C or G.

	king.	judge.	root.	leader.
		SINGULAR	•	
Nom.	rēx	jūdex	rādīx	dux
Gen.	rēg is	jūdic is	rādīc is	duc is
Dat.	rēgī	jūdic ī	rādīc ī	duc ī
Acc.	rēg em	jūdic em	rādīc em	duc em
Voc.	rēx	jūdex	radix	dux
Abl.	$r\bar{e}ge$	${ m j\bar udic}{f e}$	rādīc e	$\mathrm{duc}\mathbf{e}$
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	rēg ēs	jūdic ēs	rādīc ēs	duc ēs
Gen.	rēgum	jūdie um	rādīcum	ducum
Dat.	rēg ibus	jūdic ibus	rādīc ibus	duc ibus
Acc.	rēg ēs	jūdic ēs	rādīc ēs	ducēs
Voc.	rēg ēs	jūdic ēs	rādīc ēs	duc ēs
Abl.	rēgibus	jūdic ibus	rādīc ibus	ducibus

- 1. Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In the Paradigms observe—
- 1) That the stems are $r\bar{e}g$, $j\bar{u}dic$, $r\bar{u}d\bar{i}c$, and duc; $j\bar{u}dic$ with the variable vowel, i, e; see 57, 2.
 - 2) That the case-suffixes are those given in 57.
- 3) That s in the Nominative and Vocative Singular unites with c or g of the stem and forms x; see 30.
 - 2. For Synopsis of Declension, see Nouns in x, 91-98.

60. STEMS ENDING IN L, M, N, OR R.

	Sōl, M.,	Cōnsul, M.,	Passer, M.,	Pater, M.,
	sun.	consul.	sparrow.	father.
		SINGULA	R.	
Nom.	sõl	consul	passer	pater
Gen.	sōl is	cōnsul is	passeris	patris
Dat.	sõl	consul	passer	patr ī
Acc.	sõl em	consulem	passerem	patrem
Voc.	sõl	consul	passer	pater
Abl.	$s\bar{o}l\mathbf{e}$	$c\bar{o}nsul\mathbf{e}$	passere	patre
		PLURAL		
Nom.	sõl ēs ¹	consul ēs	passer ēs	patr ēs
Gen.		cōnsul um	passerum	patrum
Dat.	sõl ibus	consulibus	passer ibus	patribus
Acc.	sōl ēs	cōnsul ēs	passer ēs	patres
Voc.	sōl ēs	cōnsul ēs	passer ēs	patr ēs
Abl.	sõl ibus	consul ibus	passer ibus	patribus
	Pāstor, M.,	Leŏ, м.,	Virgŏ, F.,	Carmen, N.,
,	shepherd.	lion.	maiden.	song.
	•	SINGULA	R.	
Nom.	pāstor	leŏ	virgŏ	carmen .
Gen.	pāstēr is	leon is	virgin is	carminis.
Dat.	pāstōr ī	leōn ī	virgin ī	carmin
Acc.	pāstōrem	leōn em	virginem	/ carmen
Voc.	pāstor	leŏ	virgŏ	carmen
Abl.	$p\bar{a}st\bar{o}r\mathbf{e}$	leōn e	virgine	carmine
		PLURAI		
Nom.	pāstōr ēs	leōn ēs	virginēs	carmina
Gen.	pāstēr um	leōn um	virginum	carminum
Dat.	pāstēr ibus	le ōnibus	virgin ibus	carminibus
Acc.	pāstōr ēs	leon ēs	virginēs	carmina
Voc.	pāstōr ēs	le önēs	virgin ēs	carmina

1. Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In the Paradigms observe—

leonibus

1) That the stems are sol, consul, passer, patr, pāstor, leon, virgon, and carmen.

virginibus

carminibus

pāstēr**ibus**

Abl.

¹ Many monosyllables want the Gen. Plur.; see 133, 5.

² That is, the stem is patr when followed by a vowel; but when r becomes final, it develops e before it, and patr becomes pater; see 29, note.

2) That virgo (virgon) has the variable vowel, o, i, and carmen, e, i.

3) That in the Nominative and Vocative Singular s, the usual case-suffix for masculine and feminine nouns, is omitted, and that in those cases the stem $p\bar{a}st\bar{o}r$ shortens o, while $le\bar{o}n$ and virgon drop n; see 21, 2, 2), and 36, 5, 3).

2. Hiems, the only stem in m, takes s in the Nominative and Vocative Singular. Also sanguis (for sanguins), blood, and Salamis (for Salamins), Salamis, which drop n before s; see 36, 3, note 3.

3. PASSER, PATER.—Most nouns in er are declined like passer, but those in ter, and a few others, are declined like pater; see 77, 2.

4. Leō, Virgō.—Most nouns in o are declined like leō, but those in dō and gō, with a few others, are declined like virgō; see 72, with exceptions.

5. Four stems in or change o to u; see 77, 4.

6. For the Locative in the Third Declension, see 66, 4.

7. For Synopsis of Declension, see 72, 75-77.

61. STEMS ENDING IN S.

	Flos, M.,	Jūs, N.,	Opus, N.,	Corpus, N.,
	flower.	right.	work.	body.
		• SINGUI	AR.	v
Nom.	flōs	jūs	opus	corpus
Gen.	flör is	jūr is	oper is	corporis
Dat.	flörī	jūr ī	oper I	corpor
Acc.	flörem	jūs	opus	corpus
Voc.	flōs	jūs	opus	corpus
Abl.	flöre	jūr e	opere	corpore
		PLUR	AL.	
Nom.	flör ēs	jūr a	opera	corpora
Gen.	flörum	jūr um	oper um	corporum
Dat.	flöribus	jūr ibus	oper ibus	corporibus
Acc.	flör ēs	jūr a	oper a	corpora
Voc.	flör ēs	jūr a	oper a	corpora
Abl.	flör ibus	jūr ibus	oper ibus	corporibus

- 1. Stems and Case-Suffixes.—In the Paradigms observe—
- That the stems are flos, jūs, opos, and corpos.

2) That opus has the variable vowel, e, u, and corpus, o, u.

3) That **s** of the stem becomes **r** between two vowels: flos, floris (for flosis); see 31, 1.

4) That the Nom. and Voc. Sing. omit the case-suffix; see 60, 1, 3).

2. For Synopsis of Declension, see 79, 80, 82-84.

¹ Opos occurs in early Latin. In os, from the Primary Suffix as (320), o was weakened to u in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Sing. of opus and corpus, while in all the other case-forms it was weakened to e in opus, but retained unchanged in corpus; see 22.

CLASS II.-I STEMS.

62. STEMS ENDING IN I.—Nouns in is and es, not increasing in the Genitive.

	Tussis, F.,	Turris, F.,	Igr	nis, M.,	Hos	stis, M. & F.,	Nūbēs,² F.,
	cough.	tower.	fir	·e.	ener	ny.	cloud.
			SIN	GULAR.			
Nom	. tuss is	turr is		ignis		host is	nūb ēs
Gen.	tuss is	turris		ign is		hostis	nūb is
Dat.	tussī	turrī	-	ignI		hostī	nūbī
Acc.	tussim	turrim, el	m	ignem		hostem	nūb em
Voc.	tuss is	turr is		ign is		hostis	nūb ēs
Abl.	tussī	turr ī , e		ign ī , e		hoste	$n\bar{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{b}\mathbf{e}$
			PL	URAL.			
Nom	. tuss ēs	turrēs		ignēs		host ēs	nūb ēs
Gen.	tussium	turrium	-	igniun	ı	hostium	nūb itum
Dat.	tussibus	turr ibus		ignibu	S	hostibus	nūb ibus
Acc.	tuss ēs, īs	turr ēs , īs		ign ēs , i	is	host ēs , īs	nūb ēs, īs
Voc.	tussēs	turr ēs		ign ēs		host ēs	nūb ēs
Abl.	tussibus	turribus		ignibu	S	host ibus	nūb ibus

- I. Paradigms, -Observe-
- 1. That the stems are tussi, turri, igni, hosti, and nubi.3
- 2. That the case-endings, including the characteristic i, which disappears in certain cases, are as follows:

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
Nom.	is, ēs		ēs
Gen.	is		ium
Dat.	î	`	ibus
Acc.	im, em		ēs, īs
Voc.	is		ēs
Abl.	i, e		ibus

¹ That is, having as many syllables in the Nom. Sing. as in the Gen. Sing.

² Observe (1) that *tussis*, *turris*, *ignis*, and *hostis* differ in declension only in the Acc. and Abl. Sing., *tussis* showing the final i of the stem in both those cases, *turris* sometimes in both, *ignis* sometimes in the Abl., not in the Acc., *hostis* in neither (2) that $n\bar{u}b\bar{e}s$ differs from the other four in taking $\bar{e}s$ instead of $\bar{e}s$ in the Nom. and Voc. Sing.

³ Nouns in $\tilde{e}s$, Gen. is, are best treated as i-stems, although some of them were originally s-stems (61). Thus, originally the stem of $n\tilde{u}b\tilde{e}s$ was itself $n\tilde{u}b\tilde{e}s$, but s was finally treated as the Nom. suffix, and the word was accordingly declined like the large class of \tilde{s} -nouns mentioned under 62, V. The origin of i-stems is obscure. A few correspond to i-stems in the cognate tongues, as ignis, ovis, turris; a few are weakened from a-stems or o-stems, as foris, a door, Gr. $\theta\psi\rho a$, imber=imbris, rain-storm, Gr. $\delta\mu\theta\rho\sigma$; some are formed from s-stems, as $n\tilde{u}b\tilde{e}s$, just mentioned. Upon the general subject of i-stems, see Roby, pp. 186–149; Schleicher, pp. 834, 432, 453; Corssen, I. 281, 571, 738 seq.; II. 227; Merguet, pp. 38–40, 51, 67, 95, etc.

II. Like TUSSIS-Acc. im, ABL. i-are declined-

- 1. Būris, plough-tail; rāvis, hoarseness; sitis, thirst.
- 2. In the Singular: (1) Names of rivers and places in is not increasing in the Genitive: Tiberis, Hispalis; see 582. (2) Greek nouns in is, Gen. is, and some others.

III. Like TURRIS-Acc. im, em, Abl. ī, e-are declined-

Clāvis, key; febris, fever; messis, harvest; nāvis, ship; puppis, stern; restis, rope; secūris, axe; sēmentis, sowing; strigilis, strigil.

 Araris, or Arar (for Araris),¹ the Saône, and Liger (for Ligeris),¹ the Loire, have Acc. im, em, Abl. ī, e.

IV. Like IGNIS-Acc. em, ABL. ī, e-are declined-

Annis, river; anguis, serpent; avis, bird; bīlis, bile; cīvis, citizen; clāssis, fleet; collis, hill; fīnis, end; orbis, circle; postis, post; unguis, nail, and a few others.

Note 1.—Adjectives in er (for ris) and those in is have the Ablative in I (153, 154). Accordingly, when such adjectives are used substantively, the $\bar{\imath}$ is generally retained: September, September; September; familiāris, familiāri, friend. But adjectives used as proper names have e: Juvenālis, Juvenāle, Juvenāl.

Note 2.—Imber (for imbris), storm; vesper (for vesperis), evening, and a few others, sometimes have the Ablative in 1.

- V. Like HOSTIS—Acc. em, ABL. e—are declined all nouns in is, Gen. is, not provided for under II., III., and IV.3
 - VI. Like NÜBES are declined all nouns in ēs, Gen. is.4

63. Stems ending in I.—Neuters in e, al, and ar.

Mare, sea .	Animal, animal.	Calcar, sp	ur.
	SINGULAR.		CASE-ENDINGS.
Nom. mare	animal	calcar	e 6
Gen. maris	animāl is	calcāris	is
Dat. marī	animāl ī	calcārī	ĩ
Acc. mare	animal	calcar	e— 6
Voc. mare	animal	calcar	e 6
Abl. marī 5	animāl ī	calcārī	Ĩ

¹ The shortening of *Araris* to *Arar* and of *Liger* is similar to the shortening of *puerus* to *puer*; see 51, 2, 4); 36, 5, 2), note.

 $^{^2}$ Names of months are adjectives used substantively. Originally $\it{m\bar{e}nsis},$ month, was understood.

³ Except canis and juvenis, which are consonant-stems, but have assumed i in the Nom. Sing. In the plural they have um in the Gen. and ēs in the Acc. Apis, mēnsis, and volucris often have um for ium in the Gen.

⁴ Except struēs and vātēs, which generally have um in Gen. Pl., and sēdēs, which has um or ium. Compēs, Gen. edis, has also ium.

⁵ See 2 below.

⁶ The dash here implies that the case-ending is sometimes wanting.

PI	м	R	A	т

Nom.	mar ia	animāl ia	calcār ia	ia
Gen.	marium	animāl ium	calcār ium	ium
Dat.	maribus	animāl ibus	calcār ibus	ibus
Acc.	mar ia	animāl ia	calcār ia	ia
Voc.	mar ia	animāl ia	calcār ia	ia
Abl.	maribus	animāl ibus	calcār ibus	ibus

- 1. Paradigms.—Observe—
- 1) That the stem-ending i is changed to e in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular of mare, and dropped in the same cases of animal (for animale) and calcar (for calcare); see 24, 1, note; 27; 21, 2, 2).
 - 2) That the case-endings include the characteristic i.
- 2. The following have e in the Ablative Singular:—(1) Names of towns in e; Praeneste.—(2) Generally rete, net, and in poetry sometimes mare.

Note.—Neuters in ar, with a short in the Genitive, are consonant-stems: nectar, nectar; also $s\bar{a}l$, salt, and $f\bar{a}r$, corn.

64. Stems ending in i.—Nouns in s and x generally preceded by a consonant.

	Cliens, M. & F.,	Urbs, F.,	Arx, f.,	Mūs,¹ m.,
	client.	city.	citadel.	mouse.
		SINGULAR.		•
Non	. cliens	urbs	arx 3	mūs
Gen	. clientis ²	urb is	arcis	mūr is 4
Dat.	. client I	urbī	arc ī	mür ī
Acc.	clientem	urb em	arcem	mür em
Voc	cliëns	urbs	arx	mūs
Abl.	cliente	$\mathrm{urb}\mathbf{e}$	arce	$m\bar{\mathbf{u}}r\mathbf{e}$
		PLURAL.		
Non	ı. client ēs	urb ēs	arces	mür ēs
Gen	. clientium	urbinm	arcium	mür ium
Dat	clientibus	urbibus	arcibus	mūr ibus
Acc.	clientes, Is	urbēs, Is	arcēs, Is	mūr ēs, īs
Voc		urb ēs	arces	mūr ēs
Abl.	clientibus	urb ibus	arcibus	mūr ibus

¹ Cliëns is for clientis, urbs for urbis, arx for arcis, and mūs for mūsis; see 36, 5, 2), note. Mūs, originally an s-stem, Greek μŷs, became an i-stem in Latin by assuming i.

² The vowel e is here short before nt, but long before ns; see 16, note 2. Indeed, it seems probable that nt and nd shorten a preceding vowel, as ns lengthens it. See Müller, p. 27; Ritschl, Rhein. Museum, xxxi., p. 488.

³ X in arx=cs, c belonging to the stem, and s being the Nom. suffix.

Mūris is for mūsis; s changed to r between two vowels; see 31, 1.

- 1. Paradigms.—Observe—
- 1) That the stems are clienti, urbi, arci, and mūri.
- 2) That these nouns are declined in the singular precisely like consonantstems, and in the plural precisely like all other masculine and feminine i-stems.¹
 - 2. This class of i-stems includes—
- Most nouns in ns and rs: 2 clients, clientis, client; cohors, cohortis, cohort.
- 2) Monosyllables in s and x preceded by a consonant, and a few in s and x preceded by a vowel: urbs, city; arx, citadel; lis, strife; nox, night.
- 3) Names of nations in ās and īs, or, if plural, in ātēs and ītēs: Arpīnās, pl. Arpīnātēs, an Arpinatian, the Arpinates; Samnīs, pl. Samnītēs, the Samnītes.
- Optimătēs, the aristocracy; Penātēs, the household gods, and occasionally other nouns in ās.

Note 1.—Caro, flesh, has a form in is, carnis (for carinis), from which are formed carni, carnium, etc.

Note 2.—Pars, part, sometimes has partim in the Accusative.

Note 3.— $R\bar{u}s$, country, sors, lot, supellex, furniture, and a few other words sometimes have the Ablative in \bar{i} .

65. Summary of I-stems.—To I-stems belong—

- 1. All nouns in is and ēs which do not increase in the Genitive; see 62. Here belong also—
 - 1) Names of months in ber (for bris): September, October, etc.; see 62, N.1.
- 2) The following nouns in ber and ter (for bris and tris): imber, storm; linter, boat; ūter, leathern sack; venter, belly; generally also Insuber, an Insubrian.
- 2. Neuters in e, al (for ālis) and ar (for āris); see 63; also 63, 2, note.
- 3. Many nouns in s and x—especially (1) nouns in ns and rs, and (2) monosyllables in s and x preceded by a consonant; see 64, 2.

¹ Nouns thus declined are most conveniently treated as *i*-nouns, though the stem appears to end in a consonant in the Sing., and in i in the Plur. In some of these nouns the stem has lost its final i in the Sing., while in others it ended originally in a consonant, but afterward assumed i in the Plur., at least in certain cases; see 62, I., footnote.

² Some of these often have um in poetry and sometimes even in prose, as $par\bar{e}n$, parent, generally has.

³ Except (ops) opis and the Greek nouns, gryps, lynx, sphinx.

⁴ Namely, faux, glīs, līs, mās, nix, nox, os (ossis), vīs, generally fraus and mūs.

66. SPECIAL PARADIGMS.

Sūs, M. & F., swine.	Bōs, M. & F., ox, cow.	, ,	Senex, M., old man.	
	S	SINGULAR.		
Nom. sūs	bō s ¹	nix	senex	vīs
Gen. suis	bovis	niv is	sen is	vīs 2
Dat. sul	bovī	niv ī	senT	v 1 2
Acc. suem	bovem	nivem	senem	vim
Voc. sūs	bōs	nix	senex	vīs
Abl. sue	bove	$\operatorname{niv}\mathbf{e}$	$\operatorname{sen}\mathbf{e}$	v T
		PLURAL.		
Nom. su ēs	bov ēs	niv ēs	$\operatorname{sen}\mathbf{\bar{e}s}$	vīr ēs
Gen. suum	pommi pomm	niv ium	senum	vīr ium
Dat. \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \) bō bus¹ (bū bus¹	niv ibus	senibus	vīr ibus
Acc. sues	boves	niv ēs	sen es	vīr ēs
Voc. suēs	bovēs	niv ēs	$\operatorname{sen}\mathbf{ar{e}s}$	vīrēs
Abl. { suibus subus	{ b õbus { b übus	niv ibus	senibus	vīr ibus

- 1. The STEMS are su; bov; nig (nix=nigs), niv, nivi; sence, sen; vī (sing.), vīri (for vīsi, plur.); see 31, 1.
- 2. $S\overline{u}s$, and $g_R\overline{u}s$, crane, the only u stems in this declension, are declined alike, except in the Dative and Ablative Plural, where $g_T\overline{u}s$ is regular: g_Tuibus .
- 3. JUPPITER, Jupiter, is thus declined: Juppiter, Jovis, Jovi, Jovem, Juppiter, Jove. Stems, Juppiter and Jov.
- 4. Locative.—Many names of towns have a Locative Singular in ī or e denoting the place in which (45, 2). Thus:

	Nom.	Karthāgŏ,	Carthage,	Tībur,		Tibur,
	Gen.	Karthāginis, oj	Carthage,	Tīburis,	of	Tibur,
	Dat.	Karthagina, for	· Carthage,	Tīburī,	for	Tibur,
	Acc.	Karthāginem,	Carthage,	Tībur,		Tibur,
0,	Voc.	Karthāgŏ, C	Carthage,	Tībur,	0	Tibur,
			Carthage,	Tībur e ,	from	Tibur,
	Loc.	Karthaginī or e, a	Carthage.	Tīburī or e,	at	Tibur.

¹ $B\bar{o}s = \text{bovs}$, bous; $b\bar{o}bus$, $b\bar{u}bus = \text{bovibus}$, boubus.

² The Gen. and Dat. Sing. -vīs, vī-are rare.

³ For nigvi, from which nig is formed by first dropping i and then v; see 27, 36, 3, note 1.

⁴ Vi is formed from visi by first dropping i and then s.

67. CASE-SUFFIXES AND CASE-ENDINGS.1

SINGULAR.

C	ONSONANT	STEMS.	I-Stems.	
MASC. A	ND FEM.	NEUT.	MASC. AND FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	s,2	2	is, ēs, s	e,2
Gen.	is	is	is	is
Dat.	ī	ī	ī	ĭ
Acc.	em	_	im, em	e,—
Voc.	S		is, ēs, s	e,—
Abl.	e	e	ī, e	ī
		P	LURAL.	
Nom.	ēs	a	ēs	ia
Gen.	um	um	ium	ium
Dat.	ibus	ibus	ibus	ibus
Acc.	ēs	a	ēs, īs	ia
Voc.	ēs	a	ēs	ia
Abl.	ibus	ibus	ibus	ibus

Note.—The following irregular case-endings occur: 3

- 1. E, for ī, in the Dat. Sing.: 4 aere for aerī.
- 2. Eis, for īs, in the Acc. Plur. : cīveis for cīvīs, cīvēs,

3. For Greek Endings, see 68.

GREEK NOUNS.

68. Most Greek nouns of the third declension are entirely regular, but a few retain certain peculiarities of the Greek. The following are examples:

	Lampas, F.,	Phryx, M. & F.,	Hērös, м.,
	torch.	Phrygian.	hero.
		SINGULAR.	
Nom.	lampas	Phryx	hērōs
Gen.	lampadis, os	Phrygis, os	hērō is
Dat.	lampadī, i	Phryg ī, i	hērō ī , i
Acc.	lampadem, a	Phrygem, a	hērō em , a
Voc.	lampas	Phryx	hērōs
Abl.	lampade	Phryg e	$h\bar{\mathbf{e}}r\bar{\mathbf{o}}\mathbf{e}$

On the distinction between Case-Suffixes and Case-Endings, see 46, 1, and 47, note 3.

2 The dash denotes that the case-ending is wanting.

³ To these should be added for early Latin-1) us and es in the Gen. Sing.: hominus = hominis; salūtes = salūtis; ?) īd and ē in the Abl. Sing.: conventionīd = conventionē; patrē = patre; 3) īs and eis in the Nom. Plur. of i-nouns: fineis, finīs = finēs. On the Case-Endings of the Third Declension in early Latin, see Wordsworth, pp. 68-73; Kühner, I., pp. 173-179.

⁴ This e is generally long.

		PLURA	L.	
Nom.	lampadēs, es	Phr	yg ēs , es	hērōēs, es
Gen.	lampad um	Phr	ygum	hērö um
Dat.	lampadibus	Phr	ygibus	hērōibus
Acc.	lampadēs, as	Phr	yg ēs , as	hērō ēs, as
Voc.	lampadēs, es	Phr	ygēs, es	hērōēs, es
Abl.	lampad ibus	Phr	ygibus	hērō ibus
	Periclēs, м.,	Paris, M.,	Dīdō, f.,	Orpheus, M.,
	Pericles.	Paris.	Dido.	Orpheus.
		SINGUL	AR.1	
Nom.	Pericl ēs	Paris	Dīdō	Orpheus 2
Gen.	Periclis, I	Paridis, os	Dīdūs, ōn is	Orph-eos, el, I
	Periclī, i	Paridī, i	Dīdō, ōnī, ōni	Orph-eī, ei, ī, eō
Acc.	Pericl em, ea, ēn	(Parid em, a (Pari m, i n	Dīdō, ōn em	Orphea, eum
Voc.	Periclēs, es, ē	Pari	Dīdō	Orpheu
Abl.	Pericl e	Paride	Dīdō, ōn e	$Orphe$ $oldsymbol{ar{o}}$

1. Observe that these Paradigms fluctuate in certain cases—(1) between the Latin and the Greek forms: lampadis, os; lampadem, a; hērōēs, as:—(2) between different declensions: Pericles, between Dec. I., Periclen, Pericle, Dec. II., Pericli (Gen.), and Dec. III., Periclis, etc.: Orpheus, between Dec. II., Orphei, Orpheo, etc., and Dec. III., Orpheos, etc.

2. Nouns in ys have Gen. yos, ys, Acc. ym, yn: Othrys, Othryos, Othrym,

Othryn.

3. The Vocative Singular drops s-(1) in nouns in eus, ys, and in proper names in ās, Gen. antis: Atlās, Atlā:—(2) generally in nouns in is, and sometimes in other words: Pari.

4. In the Genitive Plural, the ending $\bar{o}n$ occurs in a few titles of books: Metamorphoses (title of a poem), Metamorphoseon.

5. In the Dative and Ablative Plural the ending si, before vowels sin, occurs in poetry: Troades, Troasin.

6. A few neuters used only in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative have os in the Singular and ē in the Plural: melos, melē, song.

SYNOPSIS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

I. Nouns ending in a Vowel.

69	Nouns in a:3	Genitive in atis:	Stem in at:
	poēma, poem,	poēmatis,	poēmat.

¹ The Plural is of course generally wanting; see 130, 2.

² Eu is a diphthong in the Nom. and Voc.; ei sometimes a diphthong in the Gen and Dat.

³ These are of Greek origin.

70. Nouns in e: Genitive in is: Stem in i: maris, mare, sea, mari. 71. Nouns in 1:1 Genitive in is: Stem in i:

sināpis,

sināpī, mustard,

sināpi.

Note.-Many nouns in \$\bar{i}\$ are indeclinable. Compounds of mel\$\bar{i}\$ have itis in the Genitive: oxymelī, oxymelitis, oxymel.

72. Nouns in ŏ or ō: Genitive in **ōnis**: Stem in on: leŏ, lion, leonis, leõn.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in—

- onis:—most national names: Macedo, Macedonis, Macedonian.
- 2. inis: 2—Apollō; homŏ, man; nēmŏ, nobody; turbŏ, whirlwind; and nouns in do and go: grando, grandinis, hail; virgo, virginis, maiden; except-harpagŏ, ōnis; ligŏ, ōnis; praedŏ, ōnis, also comedŏ, cūdŏ, mangŏ, spadŏ, ūnedŏ, ūdŏ.
- 3. nis:—caro, carnis (for carinis?), flesh; see 64, 2, note 1.
- 4. ēnis:—Aniŏ, Aniēnis, river Anio; Nēriŏ, Nēriēnis.
- 5. ūs:—a few Greek feminines: Dīdō, Dīdūs; see 68.
- 73. Nouns in **v**³: Gen. in **vis** (vos. $\bar{v}s$): Stem in v: misy, copperas, misyis (yos, vs), misy.

II. Nouns ending in a Mute or Liquid.

74. Nouns in c: ālēc, ālēcis, pickle; lāc, lāctis,4 milk.

75. Nouns in 1: Genitive in lis: Stem in 1:

sõl, sun, sōlis, sõl.

Note.—Fel, fellis, gall; mel, mellis, honey; sal, salis, salt. On neuters in al, see 63. 76. Nouns in n: Genitive in nis: Stem in n:

paeān. paeānis, paeān, paean,

flümen, stream, flūminis, flümen, in.

Note 1.—Nouns in en have the variable radical vowel—e, i; see 60, 1, 2). Note 2.—There are a few Greek words in on, Gen. in onis, ontis, St. in on, ont: aēdon, aēdonis, nightingale; Xenophon, Xenophontis, Xenophon.

77. Nouns in r: Genitive in ris: Stem in r: carcer, prison, carceris. carcer.

- 1. Nouns in ar, ar: (1) ar, G. aris, St. ari: lar, laris, house; (2) par, paris, pair; fār, farris, corn; hēpar, hēpatis, liver. For ar, G. āris, and ar, G. aris, see 63.
- 2. Nouns in ter: Gen. in tris: pater, patris, father; except later, lateris, tile; iter, itineris, way; Jūppiter, Jovis; and Greek nouns: crāter, crāteris, bowl.

¹ These are of Greek origin.

² Stem in on, in, or oni, ini, ni; see 60, 1, 2).

³ Nouns in y are of Greek origin, and are often indeclinable.

⁴ The only nouns in c.

Note.—Imber and names of months in ber have bris in the Genitive; imber, imbris, shower: September, Septembris, September; see 62, IV., notes 1 and 2.

- 3. Nouns in or: G. ōris, St. ōr: pāstor, pāstōris, shepherd; but a few have G. oris, St. or: arbor, arboris, tree; aequor, sea; marmor, marble. But cor, cordis, heart.
- 4. Four in ur: G. oris, St. or: ebur, ivory; femur, thigh; jecur, liver; rōbur, strength; but femur has also feminis, and jecur, jecinoris, jecineris, and jocineris.
 - 78. Nouns in ut: Genitive in itis: Stem in ut, it: caput, head, capitis, caput, it.

III. Nouns ending in S.

79. Nouns in ās: Genitive in ātis: Stem in āt: actās, age, actātis, actātis,

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. aris: -mās, maris, a male; -stem, mas, mari; see 31, 1.
- 2. āsis: -vās, vāsis, vessel.1
- 3. assis:—ās, assis, an as (a coin).
- 4. antis:—only masculine Greek nouns: adamās, antis, adamant.

Note.—Anas, duck, and neuter Greek nouns in as have atis: anas, anatis. Vas, surety, Arcas, Arcadian, and feminine Greek nouns in as have adis: vas, vadis, lampas, lampadis.²

80. Nouns in ēs: Genitive in is: Stem in i: 3

nūbēs, cloud, nūbis, nūbi.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. ēdis: hērēs, hērēdis, heir; mercēs, reward.
- 2. edis:—pēs, pedis, foot, and its compounds: compēs, edis, a fetter.
- 3. eris: Cerēs, Cereris.4
- ētis:—quiēs, rest, with compounds, inquiēs, requiēs, and a few Greek words: lebēs, tapēs.
- 5. etis:—abiēs, fir-tree; ariēs, ram; pariēs, wall.

Note.—Bēs, bēssis, two-thirds; aes, aeris, copper; praes, praedis, surety.

81. Nouns in es: Genitive in itis: Stem in et, it:
mīles, soldier, mīlitis, mīlet, it.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. etis:—interpres, interpreter; seges, crop; teges, covering.
- 2. idis:—obses, hostage; praeses, president; see 57, 2.

¹ $V\bar{a}s$ is the only stem in s which does not change s to r between two vowels; see 61, 1, 3).

² Greek nouns sometimes have ados for adis.

⁸ But see 64, 1.

⁴ See 61, 1, 3).

82. Nouns in is: Genitive in is: Stem in i: avis, bird, avis,

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- eris:—cinis, cineris,¹ ashes; cucumis, cucumber; pulvis, dust; vōmis, ploughshare.
- idis:—capis, cup; cassis, helmet; cuspis, spear; lapis, stone; prōmulsis, antepast, and a few Greek words: as tyrannis, idis, tyranny. Sometimes ibis, and tigris.
- 3. inis: -pollis or pollen, flour; sanguis, blood.

Note.—Glīs, glīris, dormouse; līs, lītis, strife; sēmis, sēmissis, half an as; Dīs, Dītis; Quirīs, Quirītis; Samnīs, Samnītis.

83. Nouns in ōs: Genitive in ōris: Stem in ōs: mōs, custom, mōris, mōs.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- ōtis:—cōs, cōtis, whetstone; dōs, dowry; nepōs, grandson; sacerdōs, priest; and a few Greek words.
- 2. ōdis: -cūstōs, cūstōdis, guardian; see 36, 2.
- ōis:—a few masculine Greek nouns: hērōs, hero; Mīnōs, Trōs.

Note.—Arbos or arbor, arboris, tree; os, ossis, bone; bos, bovis, ox; see 66.

84. Nouns in ūs, Gen. in ūris or ūtis: stem in ūs or ūt.

- üris:—crūs, leg; jūs, right; jūs, soup; mūs, mouse; pūs, pus; rūs, country; tūs (thūs), incense; tellūs, earth.
- ūtis: juventūs, youth; salūs, safety; senectūs, old age; servitūs, servitude; virtūs, virtue; see 36, 2.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

- 1. ūdis:-incūs, anvil; palūs, marsh; subscūs, dovetail.
- 2. uis: -grūs, gruis, crane; sūs, swine.
- 3. untis:—a few Greek names of places: Trapezūs, untis.
- 4. odis: Greek compounds in pūs: tripūs, tripodis, tripod.

Note.—Fraus, fraudis, fraud; laus, laudis, praise; see 64, 2, 2), foot-note. For Greek nouns in eus, see 68.

85. Nouns in us: Gen. in eris or oris: stem in os.

- 1. eris:—latus, lateris, side: stem, latos. So also: acus, foedus, fūnus, genus, glomus, mūnus, olus, onus, opus, pondus, rūdus, scelus, sīdus, ulcus, vellus, Venus, viscus, vulnus.
 - 2. oris:—corpus, corporis, body: stem, corpos.3 So also decus, dēdecus,

¹ Stem cinis, ciner for cines with variable vowel i, e; see 24, 1; 31, 1; and 57, 2.

² Greek nouns sometimes have idos or even ios for idis; Salamis has Salaminis; Simois, Simoentis.

³ See 61, 1, foot-note.

facinus, facnus, frīgus, lepus, lītus, nemus, pectus, pecus, penus, pīgnus, stercus, tempus, tergus.

Note.—Pecus, pecudis, a head of cattle; Ligus, Liguris, Ligurian; see 31.

86. Nouns in ys: 1 Genitive in yis, yos, ȳs: Stem in y: Othrys, Othryos, Othry.

87. Nouns in bs: Genitive in bis: Stem in bi: 2
urbs, city, urbi, urbi.

88. Nouns in ms: Genitive in mis: Stem in m: hiems, winter, hiemis, hiem.

89. Nouns in eps: Genitive in ipis: Stem in ep, ip.

princeps, prince, principis, princep, ip.

Note.—But auceps, aucupis, fowler. Other nouns in ps retain the stem-vowel unchanged; merops, meropis, bee-eater. Gryps, griffin, has gryphis.

90. Nouns in s after 1, n, or r: Gen. in tis: Stem in ti:

puls, broth,
mens, mind,
ars, art,
arti,
Stem in ti:
pultis,
pultis,
mentis,
artis,
arti.

Note.—Fröns, frondis, leaf; glūns, glandis, acorn; jūglūns, jūglandis, walnut; see 64, 2.

IV. Nouns ending in X.

91. Nouns in āx: Genitive in ācis: Stem in āc: pāx, peace, pācis, pāc.

Note.—Fax, facis, torch; so also a few Greek nouns. Astyanax, actis; so a few Greek names of men.

92. Nouns in ēx: Genitive in ēcis or ēgis: Stem in ēc, ēg:

ēcis:—ālēx, pickle; vervēx, wether.

2. ēgis :- lēx, law; rēx, king, and their compounds.

93. Nouns in ex: Genitive in icis: Stem in ic, ec: jūdex, judge, jūdicis, jūdic, ec.

EXCEPTIONS.—Genitive in

ecis:—nex, murder; fēnisex, mower; (prex), precis, prayer.

2. egis: -grex, flock; aquilex, water-inspector.

3. igis: - rēmex, rēmigis, rower; see 24, 1.

Note.—Faex, faecis, lees; senex, senis, old man (66); supellex, supellectilis, furniture.

94. Nouns in **Ix**: Genitive in **icis**: Stem in **ic**: rādīc. rādīcis. rādīcis.

¹ These are of Greek origin; a few of them have ydis: chlamys, chlamydis, cloak.

² Dissyllables have the stem in b.

³ Dissyllables in ns have the stem in t.

95. Nouns in ix: Genitive in icis: Stem in ic: calix, cup, calicis, calic.

Note.—Nix, nivis (66), snow; strix, strigis, screech-owl; a few Gallic names also have the Genitive in igis: Dumnorix, Orgētorix.

96. Nouns in ox or ox: vox, vocis, voice; nox, noctis, night.

Note.—There are also a few national names in ox, Gen. in ocis or ogis: Cappadox, Cappadocis; Allobrox, Allobrogis.

97. Nouns in ux: Genitive in ucis: Stem in uc:

Note 1.—Lūx, lūcis, light; Pollūx, Pollūcis, Pollux; frūx, frūgis, fruit.

NOTE 2.—Greek nouns in $\bar{y}x$ and yx are variously declined: Eryx, Erycis, Eryx; $bomb\bar{y}x$, $bomb\bar{y}gis$, silkworm; Styx, Stygis, Styx; $cocc\bar{y}x$, $cocc\bar{y}gis$, cuckoo; onyx, onychis, onyx.

98. Nouns in **x** after **n** or **r**: Genitive in **cis**: Stem in **ci**: arx, citadel, arcis, arci.

Note 1 .- Conjunx or conjux, conjugis, spouse.

Note 2.—Most nouns in x preceded by n are of Greek origin : lynx, lyncis, lynx; phalanx, phalangis, phalanx.

GENDER IN THIRD DECLENSION.

- 99. Nouns in the third declension ending in
- ŏ, or, ōs, er, and in ēs and es increasing in the Genitive, are masculine: sermō, discourse; dolor, pain; mōs, custom; agger, mound; pēs, Genitive pedis, foot.
 - 100. Nouns in O are masculine, except the Feminines, viz. :
 - Nouns in ŏ, Gen. inis, except cardŏ, ŏrdŏ, turbŏ, masc., cupīdŏ and margŏ, masc. or fem.
 - 2. Carō, flesh, and the Greek Argō, ēchō, echo.
 - Most abstract and collective nouns in io: ratio, reason; contio, an assembly.
 - 101. Nouns in OR are masculine, except-
 - 1. The Feminine: arbor, tree.
 - 2. The Neuters:—ador, spelt; aequor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble.
 - 102. Nouns in OS are masculine, except—
 - 1. The Feminines: -arbos, tree; cos, whetstone; dos, dowry; cos, dawn.
 - 2. The Neuter :- ōs, mouth.

Note.—Os, bone, and a few Greek words in os are neuter: chaos, chaos.

103. Nouns in ER are masculine, except-

¹ That is, having more syllables in the Genitive than in the Nominative.

- 1. The Feminine: -linter, boat (sometimes masc.).
- The Neuters:—(1) cadāver, corpse; iter, way; tūber, tumor; ūber, udder; vēr, spring; verber, scourge;—(2) botanical names in er, Gen. eris: acer, maple-tree; pāpāver, poppy.
- 104. Nouns in **ĒS** and **ES** increasing in the Genitive are masculine, except—
- The Feminines:—compēs, fetter; mercēs, reward; merges, sheaf; quiēs, rest (with its compounds); seges, crop; teges, mat; sometimes āles, bird, and quadrupēs, quadruped.
- 2. The Neuter:—acs, copper.
- 105. Nouns of the third declension ending in
- ās, as, is, ys, x, in ēs not increasing in the Genitive, and in s preceded by a consonant,

are feminine: aetās, age; nāvis, ship; chlamys, cloak; pāx, peace; nūbēs, cloud; urbs, city.

- 106. Nouns in AS and AS are feminine, except-
- The Masculines:—ās, an as (a coin), vas, surety, and Greek nouns in as, Gen. antis.
- 2. The Neuters: -vās, vessel, and Greek nouns in as, Gen. atis.
- 107. Nouns in IS and YS are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
- Nouns in ālis, ollis, cis, mis, nis, guis, quis: nātālis, birthday; ignis, fire; sanguis, blood. But a few of these are occasionally feminine: canis, amnis, cinis, fīnis, anguis, torquis.
- Axis, axle; būris, plough-tail; callis, path; i ēnsis, sword; lapis, stone; mēnsis, month; orbis, circle; postis, post; pulvis, dust; sentis, brier; torris, brand; vectis, lever; and a few others.
- 3. Names of mountains in ys: Othrys.
- 108. Nouns in X are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
- 1. Greek masculines: corax, raven; thorax, cuirass.
- Nouns in ex and unx; except the feminines: faex, forfex, nex, (prex), supellex.
- 3. Calix, cup; fornix, arch; phoenix, phoenix; trādux, vine-layer, and a few nouns in yx.
 - 4. Sometimes: calx, heel; calx, lime; lynx, lynx.
- 109. Nouns in **ES** not increasing in the Genitive are feminine, except the *Masculines*, viz.:

¹ Nouns whose gender is determined by Signification (42) may be exceptions to these rules for gender as determined by Endings. Callis is sometimes feminine.

Acīnacēs, cimeter; sometimes palumbēs, dove; and veprēs, thorn-bush. Note.—For Greek nouns in es, see 111, note.

- 110. Nouns in S preceded by a Consonant are feminine, except the Masculines, viz.:
 - Dēns, tooth; fons, fountain; mons, mountain; pons, bridge; generally adeps, fat, and rudēns, cable.
 - Some nouns in ns, originally adjectives or participles with a masculine noun understood: oriēns (sōl), east; confluens (amnis), confluence; tridēns (raster), trident; quadrāns (ās), quarter.
 - 3. Chalybs, steel; hydrops, dropsy, and a few other Greek words.
 - Sometimes: forceps, forceps; serpēns, serpent; stirps, stock. Animāns, animal, is masculine, feminine, or neuter.
 - 111. Nouns of the third declension ending in

a, e, ī, y, c, l, n, t, ār, ar, ur, ūs, and us

are neuter: 'poēma, poem; mare, sea; lāc, milk; animal, animal; carmen, song; caput, head; corpus, body.

Note.—A few Greek nouns in es are also neuter: cacoethes, desire, passion.

- 112. Nouns in \mathbf{L} , $\bar{\mathbf{A}}\mathbf{R}$, and $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{R}$ are neuter, except the *Masculines*, viz. : $M\bar{u}gil$, mullet; $s\bar{a}l$, salt; $s\bar{o}l$, sun; $l\bar{a}r$, hearth; salar, trout.
- 113. Nouns in N are neuter, except-
- The Masculines:—pecten, comb; rēn, kidney; liēn, spleen; and Greek masculines in ān, ēn, īn, ōn: paeān, paean; canōn, rule.
- The Feminines:—aēdōn, nightingale; aleyōn (haleyōn), kingfisher; ēcōn, image; sindōn, muslin.
- 114. Nouns in **UR** are neuter, except the *Masculines*, viz.: Furfur, bran; turtur, turtle-dove; vultur, vulture.
- 115. Nouns in US and US are neuter, except—
- 1. The Masculines:—lepus, hare; mūs, mouse; and Greek nouns in pūs.
- The Feminines:—tellūs, earth; fraus, fraud; laus, praise; and nouns in ūs, Gen. ūtis or ūdis: virtūs, virtue; palūs, marsh.

FOURTH DECLENSION: U NOUNS.

116. Nouns of the fourth declension end in

us-masculine; ū-neuter.

They are declined as follows:

¹ See foot-note, page 47. Sal is sometimes neuter in the singular.

Früctus, fruit. Cornü, horn.

		SINGULAR.	CASE-ENDINGS.	
Nom.	früctus	corn ū	us	ū
Gen.	früct üs	corn ūs	ūs	ūs
Dat.	früctuī, ū 1	corn ū	uī, ū ¹	ū
Acc.	früctum	corn u	um	ū
Voc.	früct us	corn ū	us	ū
Abl.	früct ü	corn ū	ū	ū
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	früct üs	cornua	ūs.	ua
Gen.	früctuum	cornuum	uum	uum
Dat.	frūct ibus	cornibus	ibus (ubus)	ibus (ubus)
Acc.	früct üs	cornua	ūs	ua
Voc.	frūct ūs	cornua	ūs	ua
Abl.	früct ibus	cornibus	ibus (ubus)	ibus (ubus)

- 1. The Stem in nouns of the fourth declension ends in u: frūctu, cornu.
- 2. The CASE-Endings here given contain the characteristic **u**, weakened to *i* in *ibus*, but retained in *ubus*; see 22.
 - 117. The following IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS OCCUR: 2
 - 1. Ubus for ibus in the Dative and Ablative Plural-
 - 1) Regularly in acus, needle; arcus, bow; and tribus, tribe.
- 2) Often in artus, joint; lacus, lake; partus, birth; portus, harbor; specus, cave; and verū, spit.
 - 3) Occasionally in a few other words, as genū, knee; tonitrus, thunder, etc.
- 2. Uis, the uncontracted form for as, in the Genitive: $fr\bar{u}ctuis$ for $fr\bar{u}ct\bar{u}s$.
 - 3. Uos, an old form 5 of the Genitive ending: senātuos, 6 of the senate.
- 118. Nouns in ${\bf us}$ are masculine, those in $\bar{\bf u}$ are neuter, but the following in ${\bf us}$ are—

¹ Thus $u\bar{\imath}$ is contracted into \bar{u} : $fr\bar{u}ctu\bar{\imath}$, $fr\bar{u}ct\bar{u}$.

² To these should be added the rare endings $\bar{u}d$ for \bar{u} in the Abl. Sing., uus for $\bar{u}s$ in the Gen. Sing., and $u\bar{u}s$ for $\bar{u}s$ in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Pl. See Wordsworth, pp. 60–62.

³ Generally plural, limbs.

⁴ It has been already mentioned (47, note 1) that the five declensions are only five varieties of one general system of inflection. The close relationship between the third declension and the fourth will be seen by comparing the declension of frāctus, a u-noun of the fourth, with that of grūs (66, 2), a u-noun of the third. In fact, if the old Genitive ending uis had not been contracted into ūs, there would have been no fourth declension whatever. All u-nouns would have belonged to the third declension.

⁵ Compare the Greek Genitive in νος: ἰχθύς, ἰχθύος, fish.

⁶ This was first weakoned to senātuis (22), and then contracted to senātūs (23, 2), the classical form.

FEMININE BY EXCEPTION:—(1) acus, needle; colus, distaff; domus, house; manus, hand; porticus, portico; tribus, tribe;—(2) Īdūs, Ides; Quīnquātrūs, feast of Minerva; generally penus, store, when of this declension; rarely specus, den;—(3) see 42, II.

Note.—The only neuter nouns in common use are cornū, genū, and verū.1

- 119. Second and Fourth Declensions.—Some nouns are partly of the fourth declension and partly of the second.
- 1. Domus, r., house, has a Locative form domī, at home, and is other wise declined as follows: 2

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. domus	domūs
Gen. domus	domuum, domōrum
Dat. domuī (domō)	domibus
Acc. domum	domōs, domūs
Voc. domus.	domūs
Abl. domo (domu)	domibus

- 2. Certain names of trees in us, as cupressus, fīcus, laurus, pīnus, though generally of Decl. II., sometimes take those cases of the fourth which end in ūs, us, and ū: N. laurus, G. laurūs, D. laurō, A. laurum, V. laurus, A. laurū, etc. So also colus, distaff.
- 3. A few nouns, especially senātus, senate, and tumultus, tumult, though regularly of Decl. IV., sometimes take the Genitive ending i of the second; senāti, tumulti.
 - 4. Quercus, oak, regularly of Decl. IV., has quercorum in the Gen. Plur.

FIFTH DECLENSION: E NOUNS.

120. Nouns of the fifth declension end in **ēs**—feminine, and are declined as follows:

		Dies, day .	Res, thing.			
			SINGULAR.	CASI	E-Endings.	
	Nom.	di ēs	r ēs		ēs	
	Gen.	di ēī or di ē	r ĕī or r ē	e.'	ĕī, ē	
1	Dat.	di ēī or di ē	r ĕī or r ē		ĕī, ē	
	Acc.	diem	rem		em	
	Voc.	di ēs	r ēs		ēs	
	Abl.	$\mathrm{di}\mathbf{ar{e}}$	r ē		ē	

¹ But neuter forms occur in certain cases of other words. Thus, Dat. pecu, Abl. pecu, Nom., Acc., and Voc. Pl. pecua, from obsolete pecu, cattle; also artua from artus; ossua from obsolete ossu, bone; specua from specus.

² Combining forms of the second declension with those of the fourth.

		PLURAL.	CASE-ENDINGS.	
Nom.	dies	r ēs	ēs	
Gen.	di ērum	r ērum	ērum	
Dat.	di ēbus	r ēbus	ēbus	
Acc.	diēs	r ēs	ēs	
Voc.	dies	r ēs	ēs	
Abl.	di ēbus	r ēbus	ēbus	

- 1. The Stem of nouns of the fifth declension ends in $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$: $di\bar{e}$, $r\bar{e}$.
- 2. The Case-Endings here given contain the characteristic \tilde{e} , which appears in all the cases. It is shortened (1) generally in the ending $\check{e}\bar{\imath}$, when preceded by a consonant, and (2) regularly in the ending em.

Note.—Traces of a Locative in \tilde{e} are preserved in certain phrases found in early Latin, as $di\tilde{e}$ septim \tilde{i} , on the seventh day; $di\tilde{e}$ crāstin \tilde{i} , on the morrow; $di\tilde{e}$ prōxim \tilde{i} , on the next day. Cot \tilde{i} di \tilde{e} , hodi \tilde{e} , pr \tilde{i} di \tilde{e} , and the like are doubtless Locatives in origin.

121. IRREGULAR CASE-ENDINGS.—The following occur:

- 1. $\overline{\mathbf{I}}$ or $\overline{\mathbf{e}}\overline{\mathbf{i}}$ for $\widetilde{e}\overline{\mathbf{i}}$ in the Gen. and Dat.: $aci\overline{\imath}$ for $aci\overline{\imath}\overline{\imath}$, of sharpness; $di\overline{a}$ for $di\overline{\imath}\overline{\imath}$; $r\overline{e}\overline{\imath}$ for $r\overline{e}\overline{\imath}$; pernici $\overline{\imath}$ for pernici $\overline{e}\overline{\imath}$, of destruction.
 - 2. Es in the Gen. in early Latin: dies, of a day; rabies, of madness.

122. Defective.—Nouns of this declension want the plural, except 2-

- 1. Dies and res, complete in all their parts.
- Aciës, sharpness; effigiës, image; faciës, face; seriës, series; speciës, appearance; spēs, hope, used in the Sing., and in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Plur.
- 3. Eluviès, used in the Sing. and in the Nom. Plur., and glaciès in the Sing. and in the Acc. Plur.

123. GENDER .- Nouns of the fifth declension are feminine-

Excert dies, day, and meridies, midday, masculine, though dies is some times feminine in the singular, especially when it means time.

124. General Table of Gender.

I. Gender independent of ending. Common to all declensions.

Originally most e-stems appear to have been either a-stems or s-stems. Thus: 1) Most stems in $i\bar{e}$ are modified from $i\bar{a}$: $m\bar{a}teri\bar{a}$, $m\bar{a}teri\bar{e}$, Nom. $m\bar{a}teri\bar{e}$ -s, material; see 25, 1, note, with foot-note 6. In this class of words the Gen, and Dat. Sing. are formed from the stem in $i\bar{a}$, not from that in $i\bar{e}s$: $m\bar{a}teriae$, not $m\bar{a}teri\bar{e}i$. 2) $Di\bar{e}s$, $fid\bar{e}s$, $pl\bar{e}b\bar{e}s$, and $sp\bar{e}s$ appear to have been s-stems, modified to \bar{e} -stems, as many s-stems in the third declension were modified to i-stems; see 62, I., 1, foot-note.

² A few plural forms in addition to those here given are sometimes cited, but seem not to occur in writers of the classical period.

³ In early Latin spērēs occurs in the Nom. and Acc. Plur., formed from spēs treated as a stem in s. Thus: spēs, spēsēs, spērēs (31, 1).

⁴ For exceptions, see 43.

Masculine. RIVERS, WINDS, and MONTHS.

Feminine. Names of Males, of Names of Females, of Indeclinable Nouns, In-COUNTRIES, TOWNS, ISL-ANDS, and TREES.

Neuter. FINITIVES, and CLAUSES used as Nouns.

II. Gender determined by Nominative ending.2

11. Gender de	committee by 140mma	ive ename.
	DECLENSION I.	
Masculine. ās, ēs.	Feminine. a, ē.	Neuter.
er, ir, us, os, ōs.	DECLENSION II.	um, on.
	DECLENSION III.	
ŏ, or, ōs, er, ēs and es increasing in the Genitive.	ās, as, is, ys, x, ēs and es not increasing in the Genitive, s preceded by a consonant.	a, e, ī, y, c, l, n, t, ā ar, ur, ūs, us.
us.	DECLENSION IV.	l ü.
	DECLENSION V.	
	ēs.	1

COMPOUND NOUNS.

- 125. Compounds present in general no peculiarities of declension. But-
- 1. If two nominatives unite, they are both declined: 3 respublica = res publica, republic, the public thing; jūsjūrandum = jūs jūrandum, oath.
- 2. If a nominative unites with an oblique case, only the nominative is declined: 3 paterfamilias = pater familias (49, 1), or pater familiae, the father of a family.

126. PARADIGMS.

		SINGULAR.		
Nom.	rēspūblica	jūsjūrandum	paterfamiliās	
Gen.	rĕīpūblicae	jūrisjūrandī	patrisfamiliās	
Dat.	rěīpūblicae	jūrījūrandō	patrīfamiliās	
Acc.	rempüblicam	jūsjūrandum	patremfamiliās	
Voc.	rēspūblica	jūsjūrandum	paterfamiliās	
Abl.	rēpūblicā	jūrejūrandō	patrefamiliās	

Except names of persons.

² For exceptions, see under the several declensions.

³ Words thus formed, however, are not compounds in the strict sense of the term; see 340, I., note.

PLURAL.					
Nom.	rēspūblicae	jūrajūranda	patrēsfamiliās		
Gen.	rērumpūblicārum		patrumfamiliās		
Dat.	rēbuspūblicīs		patribusfamiliās		
Acc.	rēspūblicās	jūrajūranda	patrēsfamiliās		

jūrajūranda Voc. respublicae patrēsfamiliās Abl. rēbuspūblicīs patribusfamiliās

Note 1.—The parts which compose these and similar words are often and perhaps more correctly written separately: res pūblica; pater familias or familiae.

Note 2.—Paterfamiliās sometimes has familiārum in the plural: patrēsfamiliārum.

IRREGULAR NOUNS.

127. Irregular nouns may be divided into four classes:

I. INDECLINABLE Nouns have but one form for all cases.

II. DEFECTIVE NOUNS want certain parts.

III. HETEROCLITES (heteroclita 1) are partly of one declension and partly of another.

IV. HETEROGENEOUS Nouns (heterogenea 2) are partly of one gender and partly of another.

I. Indeclinable Nouns.

128. The Latin has but few indeclinable nouns. The following are the most important:

1. The letters of the alphabet, a, b, c, alpha, beta, etc.

2. Foreign words: Jācōb, Riberī; though foreign words often are declined.

II. DEFECTIVE NOUNS.

129. Nouns may be defective in Number, in Case, or in both Number and Case.

130. Plural wanting.—Many nouns from the nature of their signification want the plural: Roma, Rome; jūstitia, justice; aurum, gold; famēs, hunger; sanguis, blood.

1. The principal nouns of this class are:

Most names of persons and places: Cicero, Roma.

2) Abstract Nouns: fides, faith; jūstitia, justice.

3) Names of materials: aurum, gold; ferrum, iron.

4) A few others: merīdiēs, midday; specimen, example; supellex, furni-

ture; ver, spring; vespera, evening, etc.

2. Proper names admit the plural to designate families, classes; names of materials, to designate pieces of the material or articles made of it; and abstract nouns, to designate instances, or kinds, of the quality: Scīpiōnēs, the Scipios; aera, vessels of copper; avāritiae, instances of avarice; odia, hatreds.

3. In the poets, the plural of abstracts occurs in the sense of the singular.

² From ετερος, another, and γένος, gender, i. e., of different genders.

¹ From ετερος, another, and κλίσις, inflection, i. e., of different declensions.

131. SINGULAR WANTING .- Many nouns want the singular.

1. The most important of these are:

 Certain personal appellatives applicable to classes: mājōrēs, forefathers; posterē, descendants; geminē, twins; līberē, children.

 Many names of cities: Athēnae, Athens; Thēbae, Thebes; Delphē, Delphi.

3) Many names of festivals: Bacchānālia, Olympia, Sāturnālia.

4) Arma, arms; dīvitiae, riches; exsequiae, funeral rites; exuviae, spoils; Idūs, Ides; indūtiae, truce; īnsidiae, ambuscade; mānēs, shades of the dead; mīnae, threats; moenia, walls; mūnia, duties; nūptiae, nuptials; rěliquiae, remains.

2. An individual member of a class designated by these plurals may be denoted by *ūnus ex* with the plural: *ūnus ex līberīs*, one of the children, or a child.

NOTE.—The plural in names of cities may have reference to the several parts of the city, especially as ancient cities were often made up of separate villages. So in the names of festivals, the plural may refer to the various games and exercises which together constituted the festival.

132. Plural with Change of Meaning.—Some nouns have one signification in the singular and another in the plural. Thus:

SINGULAR.

Aedes, temple;
Auxilium, help;
Carcer, prison, barrier;
Castrum, castle, hut;
Comitium, name of a part of the
Roman forum;
Copia, plenty, force;
Facultas, ability;
Finis, end;
Fortune;
Grātia, gratitude, favor;
Hortus, garden;
Impedimentum, hindrance;
Littera, letter of alphabet;

Lūdus, play, sport;
Mōs, custom;
Nātālis (diēs), birth-day;
Opera, work, service;
Pars, part;
Rōstrum, beak of ship;

Sāl, salt;

PLURAL.

aedes, (1) temples, (2) a house.¹
auxilia, auxiliaries.
carceres, barriers of a race-course.
castra, camp.
comitia, the assembly held in the comitium.

copiae, (1) stores, (2) troops.
facultātēs, wealth, means.
finēs, borders, territory.
fortūnae, possessions, wealth.
grātiae, thanks.
impedimenta, (1) hindrances, (2) baggage.
litterae, (1) letters of alphabet, (2) epistle,
writing, letters, literature.
lūdī, (1) plays, (2) public spectacle.
morēs, manners, character.
nātālēs, pedigree, parentage.
operae, workmen.
partēs, (1) parts, (2) a party.
röstra, (1) beaks, (2) the rostra or tribune

in Rome (adorned with beaks).

sales, witty sayings.

¹ Aedēs and some other words in this list, it will be observed, have in the plural two significations, one corresponding to that of the singular, and the other distinct from it.

- 133. DEFECTIVE IN CASE.—Some nouns are defective in case:
- 1. In the Nom., Dat., and Voc. Sing.: -, opis, -, open, -, ope, help; —, vicis,1 —, vicem, —, vice, change.
 - 2. In the Nom., Gen., and Voc. Sing .: -, preci, precem, -, prece, prayer.
- 3. In the Nom. and Voc. Sing.: —, dapis, dapī, dapēn, —, dape, food; -, frūgis, frūgī, frūgem, -, frūge, fruit.
 - 4. In the Gen., Dat., and Abl. Plur.: Most nouns of the fifth Decl.; see 122.

Note.-Many neuters are also defective in the Gen., Dat., and Abl. Plur. : far, fel, mel, pūs, rūs, tūs, etc., especially Greek neuters in os, which want these cases also in the singular: epos, melos; also a few nouns of Decl. IV.: metus, situs, etc.

- 5. In the Gen. Plur.: many nouns otherwise entire, especially monosyllables: nex, pāx, pix; cor, cos, ros; sāl, sol, lūx.
- 134. Number and Case.—Some nouns want one entire number and certain cases of the other. The following forms occur: fors, forte, chance; luēs, luem, lue, pestilence; dicionis, dicione, dicionem, dicione, sway. Fās, right, and nefās, wrong, are used in the Nom., Acc., and Voc. Sing.; instar, likeness, nihil, nothing, and opus, need, in the Nom. and Acc.; secus, sex, in the Acc. only. Many verbal nouns in \bar{u} and a few other words have only the Ablative Singular; jussū, by order; mandātū, by command: rogātū, by request; sponte, by choice, etc.

III. HETEROCLITES.

- 135. Of Declensions II. and IV. are a few nouns in us; see 119.
- 136. Of Declensions II. and III. are-
- 1. Jūgerum, an acre; generally of the second Decl. in the Sing., and of the third in the Plur.: jugerum, jugeri; plural, jugera, jugerum, jugeribus.
- 2. Vās, a vessel; of the third Decl. in the Sing. and of the second in the Plur.: vās, vāsis; plural, vāsa, vāsorum.
- 3. Plural names of festivals in ālia: Bacchānālia, Sāturnālia; which are regularly of the third Decl., but sometimes form the Gen. Plur. in orum of the second. Ancile, a shield, and a few other words have the same peculiarity.

137. Of Declensions III. and V. are—

- 1. Requies, rest; which is regularly of the third Decl., but also takes the forms requiem and requie of the fifth.
- 2. Fames, hunger; regularly of the third Decl., except in the Ablative, fame, of the fifth (not fame, of the third).
- 138. Forms in ia and ies.—Many words of four syllables have one form in ia of Decl. I., and one in ies of Decl. V.: luxuria, luxuries, luxury; māteria, māteriēs, material.
- 139. Forms in us and um. Many nouns derived from verbs have one form in us of Decl. IV., and one in um of Decl. II.: conatus, conatum, attempt; ēventus, ēventum, event.

¹ Defective also in the Gen. Plur.

- 140. Many words which have but one approved form in prose, admit another in poetry: juventūs (ūtis), youth; poetic, juventa (ae): senectūs (ūtis), old age; poetic, senecta (ae): paupertās (ātis), poverty; poetic, pauperies (ei).
 - IV. HETEROGENEOUS NOUNS.
- 141. MASCULINE AND NEUTER.—Some masculines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender:

Jocus, m., jest;

plural, jocī, m., joca, n.

Locus, m., place;

plural, loci, m., topics, loca, n., places.

142. FEMININE AND NEUTER.—Some feminines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender:

Carbasus, f., linen;

plural, carbasī, f., carbasa, n.

Carbasus, f., linen; plural, carbasī, f., carbasa, n.

Margarīta, f., pearl; plural, margarītae, f., margarīta, n.

Ostrea, f., ovster: plural, ostreae, f., ostrea, n. Ostrea, f., oyster;

plural, ostreae, f., ostrea, n.

- 143. NEUTER AND MASCULINE OR FEMININE.—Some neuters take in the plural a different gender. Thus:
 - 1. Some neuters become masculine in the plural:

Caelum, n., heaven;

plural, caelī, m.

2. Some neuters generally become masculine in the plural, but sometimes remain neuter:

Frēnum, n., bridle;

plural, frēnī, m., frēna, n.

Rāstrum, n., rake;

plural, rāstrī, m., rāstra, n.

3. Some neuters become feminine in the plural:

Epulum, n., feast;

plural, epulae, f.

- 144. Forms in us and um.—Some nouns of the second declension have one form in us masculine, and one in um neuter: clipeus, clipcum, shield; commentarius, commentarium, commentary.
- 145. HETEROGENEOUS HETEROCLITES.—Some heteroclites are also heterogeneous: conātus (ūs), conātum (ī), effort; menda (ae), mendum (ī), fault.

CHAPTER II.

ADJECTIVES.

146. The adjective is the part of speech which is used to qualify nouns: bonus, good; māgnus, great.

Note.—The form of the adjective in Latin depends in part upon the gender of the noun which it qualifies: bonus puer, a good boy; bona puella, a good girl; bonum templum, a good temple. Thus, in the Nom. Sing., bonus is the form of the adjective when used with masculine nouns, bona with feminine, and bonum with neuter.

147. Some adjectives are partly of the first declension and partly of the second, while all the rest are entirely of the third declension.

FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS: A AND O STEMS.

2 2202 1202 DECOM	DECEMENTATION : HE II.	OTEMBO.
148. Bonus, good.1	SINGULAR.	
MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom. bonus	bona	bonum
Gen, bonī	bonae	bonī
Dat , bon $ar{\mathbf{o}}$	bonae	$\mathrm{bon} \boldsymbol{\bar{o}}$
Acc. bonum	bonam	bonum
Voc. bone	bona	bonum
$Abl.$ bon $oldsymbol{\bar{o}}$	bon ā	$\mathbf{bon}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$
	PLURAL.	
Nom. bonI	bonae	bona
Gen. bonorum	bonārum	bon örum
Dat. bonīs	bonīs	bon īs
Acc. bonos	bonas	bona
Voc. bon1	bonae	bona
Abl. bonīs	bonis	bon īs
149. Liber, <i>free</i> . ²	SINGULAR.	
MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom. līber	lībera	līberum
Gen. līberī	līber ae	līberī
Dat . liber $oldsymbol{ar{o}}$	līber ae	līber ō
Acc. liberuum	līber am	līberum
Voc. līber	lībera	liberuum
$Abl.$ līber $oldsymbol{ar{o}}$	līber ā	līber ō
	PLURAL.	
Nom. liberī	līber ae	līber a
Gen. līber ōrum	līber ārum	līber ōrum
Dat. līber īs	līber īs	līber īs
Acc. līber ōs	līber ās	līber a
Voc. līberī	līber ae	līber a
Abl. līberīs	līber īs	līber īs

¹ Bonus is declined in the Masc. like *servus* of Decl. II. (51), in the Fem. like *mēnsa* of Decl. II. (48), and in the Neut. like *templum* of Decl. II. (51). The stems are *bono* in the Masc. and Neut., and *bonā* in the Fem.

² Liber is declined in the Masc. like puer (51), and in the Fem. and Neut. like bonus.

-

150. Aeger, sick.1

	F	SINGULAR.		
	MASC.	Fem.	NEUT.	
Nom.	aeger	aegra	aegrum	
Gen.	aegrī	aegr ae	aegr ī	
Dat.	$aegrar{oldsymbol{o}}$	aegr ae	$\operatorname{aegr} \mathbf{\bar{o}}$	
Acc.	aegrum	aegr am	aegr um	
Voc.	aeger	aegr a	aegrum	
Abl.	$\operatorname{aegr}{oldsymbol{\bar{o}}}$	aegr ā	$\operatorname{aegr} \mathbf{\bar{o}}$	
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	aegrī	aegr ae	aegr a	
Gen.	aegr ōrum	aegr ārum	aegr ōrun	a
Dat.	aegr īs	aegr īs	aegr īs	
Acc.	aegr ōs	aegr ās	aegra	
Voc.	aegr ī	aegr ae	aegr a	
Abl.	aegr īs	aegr īs	aegr īs	

Note.—Most adjectives in *er* are declined like *aeger*, but the following in *er* and *ur* are declined like *liber*:

- Asper, rough; lacer, torn; miser, wretched; prōsper, prosperous; tener, tender; but asper sometimes drops the e, and dexter, right, sometimes retains it: dexter, dextera, or dextra.
 - 2) Satur, sated; satur, satura, saturum.
 - 3) Compounds in fer and ger: mortifer, deadly; aliger, winged.
- 151. IRREGULARITIES. Nine adjectives have in the singular **īus**² in the Genitive and **ī** in the Dative, and are declined as follows:

Alius, a	nother.		Sōlus, a	ilone.	
		SINGULA	AR.		
 MASC. alius 3 alīus aliī alium aliō	FEM. alia alfus aliī aliam aliā	NEUT. aliud 3 alius 4 alii aliud aliud	Maso. sõlus sõlīus sõlī sõlum sõle	Fem. sõla sõlīus sõlī sõlam sõla sõlā	Neut. sõlum sõlīus sõlī sõlum sõlum

 $^{^1}$ AEGER is declined in the masculine like ager (51), and in the feminine and neuter like bonus.

 $^{^2}$ I in $\bar{\imath}us$ is often shortened by the poets; regularly so in alter $\bar{\imath}us$ in dactylic verse (609).

³ Rarely alis and alid. The same stem appears in ali-quis (190, 2), some one; ali-ter, otherwise.

⁴ For alitus by contraction. Altertus often supplies the place of alius.

			PLURAL.			
Nom.	aliī	aliae	alia	sõlī	sõlae	sōla
Gen.	aliōrum	aliārum	aliōrum	sõlõrum	sõlārum	sölörum
Dat.	aliīs	aliīs	aliīs	sōlīs	sōlīs	sōlīs
Acc.	aliōs	aliās	alia	sōlōs	sõlās	sõla
Voc.				sōlī	sōlae	sōla
Abl.	aliīs	aliīs	aliīs	sõlīs	sōlīs	sōlīs

1. These nine adjectives are: alius, a, ud, another; nūllus, a, um, no one; sōlus, alone; tōtus, whole; ūllus, any; ūnus,¹ one; alter, -tera, -terum,² the other³; uter, -tra, -trum,⁴ which (of two); neuter, -tra, -trum,⁴ neither.

Note 1.—The regular forms occasionally occur in the Gen. and Dat. of some of these adjectives.

NOTE 2.—Like uter are declined its compounds: uterque, utervis, uterlibet, utercunque. In alteruter sometimes both parts are declined, as alterius utrius; and sometimes only the latter, as alterutrius.

THIRD DECLENSION: CONSONANT AND I STEMS.

- 152. Adjectives of the third declension may be divided into three classes:
- I. Those which have in the Nominative Singular three different forms—one for each gender.
- II. Those which have two forms—the masculine and feminine being the same.
- III. Those which have but one form—the same for all genders.
- 153. Adjectives of Three Endings in this declension have the stem in i, and are declined as follows:

	Ācer, sharp.5		
	Acei, sharp.	SINGULAR.	
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	ācer 6	ācr is	ācre
Gen.	ācris	ācr is	ācr is
Dat.	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī
Acc.	ācr em	ãer em	ācre
Voc.	ācer	ācris	ācre
Abl.	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī

¹ See declension, 175.

² Gen. alterius, Dat. alteri; otherwise declined like liber (149).

³ Or one of two, the one.

⁴ Gen. utrīus, Dat. utrī; otherwise like aeger (150). Neuter like uter.

⁵ ĀCER is declined like ignis in the Masc. and Fem., and like mare (63) in the Neut., except in the Nom. and Voc. Sing., Masc., and in the Abl. Sing.

⁶ These forms in er are like those in er of Decl. II. in dropping the ending in the Nom. and Voc. Sing. and in developing final r into er: acer for acris, stem, acri.

		PLURAL.	
	MASC.	F EM.	NEUT.
Nom.	ācr ēs	ãcr ēs	ācr ia
Gen.	ācrium	ācrīmm	ācr ium
Dat.	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus
Acc.	ācrēs, Is	ācr ēs, Is	ācr ia
Voc.	ācrēs	ācr ēs	ācr ia
Abl.	ācribus	ācr ibus	ācribus

Note 1 .- Like Acer are declined:

2) Adjectives in er designating the months: October, bris.2

Note 2.—In the poets and in early Latin the form in er, as $\bar{a}cer$, is sometimes feminine, and the form in is, as $\bar{a}cris$, is sometimes masculine.

154. Adjectives of Two Endings are declined as follows:

	Trīstis, sad.3			Tristior, sadder.4	
			SINGULA	R.	
	M. AND F.	NEUT.		M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom.	trīst is	${ m tr} { m ist} {f e}$		trīstior	trīstius
Gen.	trīst is	trīst is		trīstiōr is	trīstiōr is
Dat.	trīst ī	trīstī		trīstiōr ī	trīstiōr ī
Acc.	trīst em	$tr\bar{s}te$		trīstiōr em	trīstius
Voc.	trīst is	$tr\bar{s}te$		tristior	trīstius
Abl.	trīstī	trīstī		trīstiōr e (1) ⁵	trīstiōr e (1)
			PLURAL.		
Nom.	trīst ēs	trīst ia		trīstiōr ēs	trīstior a
Gen.	trīst ium	trīst ium	n	trīstiōr um	trīstiōr um
Dat.	trīst ibus	trīst ibu	IS	trīstiōr ibus	trīstiōr ibus
Acc.	trīst ēs , Is	trīst ia		trīstiōr ēs (īs)	trīstiōra
Voc.	trīst ēs	trīst ia		trīstiōr ēs	trīstiōr a
Abl.	trīst ibus	trīst ibu	s	trīstiōr ibus	trīstiōr ibus

Note 1.—Like $tr\bar{\imath}$ stior, comparatives, as consonant stems, generally have the Abl. Sing. in e, sometimes in $\bar{\imath}$, the Nom. Plur. Neut. in a, and the Gen. Plur. in um. But $compl\bar{u}r\bar{e}s$, several, has Gen. Plur. $compl\bar{u}rium$; Nom., Acc., and Voc. Plur. Neut. $compl\bar{u}ra$ or $compl\bar{u}ria$; see $Pl\bar{u}s$, 165.

Note 2.—In poetry, adjectives in is, e, sometimes have the Abl. Sing. in e: cognō-mine from cognōminis, of the same name.

Alacer, lively; campester, level; celeber, famous; celer, swift; equester, equestrian; palüster, marshy; pedester, pedestrian; puter, putrid; salüber, healthful; silvester, woody; terrester, terrestrial; volucer, winged.

¹ This retains e in declension: celer, celeris, celere; and has um in the Gen. Plur.

² See also 77, 2, note.

³ Trīstis and trīste are declined like ācris and ācre; the stem is trīsti.

⁴ Trīstior is the comparative (160) of trīstis; the stem was originally trīstiös, but it has been modified to trīstius (61, 1) and trīstiör (31).

⁶ Enclosed endings are rare.

155. Adjectives of One Ending generally end in s or x, but sometimes in l or r.

1	56	Audāx.	audacious.	1

Fēlīx, happy.1

	SINGULAR.					
	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.		
Nom.	audāx	audāx	fēlīx	fēlīx		
Gen.	audāc is	audāc is	fēlīc is	fēlīc is		
Dat.	audāc ī	audācī	fēlīcī.	fēlīcī		
Acc.	audāc em	audāx	fēlīc em	fēlīx		
Voc.	audāx	audāx	fēlīx	fēlīx		
Abl.	audāc ī (e)	audāc ī (e)	fēlīcī (e)	fēlīcī (e)		
		PLURAL.				
Nom.	audāc ēs	audāc ia	fēlīc ēs	fēlīc ia		
Gen.	audāc ium	audāc ium	fēlīc ium	fēlīc ium		
Dat.	audāc ibus	audāc ibus	fēlīcibus	fēlīc ibus		
Acc.	audāc ēs (Is)	audāc ia	fēlīc ēs (īs)	fēlīc ia		
Voc.	audācēs	audāc ia	fēlīc ēs	fēlīc ia		
Abl.	audāc ibus	audāc ibus	fēlīc ibus	fēlīc ibus		

157. Amāns, loving.

Prūdēns, prudent.

M. and F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom. amāns	amāns	prūdēns	prūdēns
Gen. amantis	amant is 2	prūdent is	prūdent is 2
Dat. amantI	amant ï	prūdent ī	prüdent ï
Acc. amantem	amāns	prüdent em	prūdēns
Voc. amāns	amāns	prūdēns	prūdēns
Abl. amante (I)	amante (I)	prūdent ī (e)	prüdent ī (e)
	PLURAL.		
Nom. amantēs	amant ia	prūdent ēs	prūdent ia
Gen. amantium	amantiurn	prūdent ium	prüdent ium
Dat. amantibus	amantibus	prūdent ibus	prüdentibus
Acc. amantēs (īs)	amantia	prūdent ēs (īs)	prūdent ia
Acc. amantēs (Is) Voc. amantēs			

SINGULAR.

NOTE.—The participle amans differs in declension from the adjective pradens only in the Abl. Sing., where the participle usually has the ending e, and the adjective, i.

Observe that \(\tilde{\epsilon}\) in the Abl. Sing., and \(ia, ium\), and \(\tilde{\epsilon}\) in the Plur., are the regular case-endings for \(i\text{-stems}\); see 62 and 63.

² According to Ritschl, Schmitz, and others, the e which is long in $pr\bar{u}d\bar{e}ns$ before ns is short in all other forms of the word, i. e., before nt. In the same manner the a which is long in $am\bar{a}ns$, is according to Ritschl short in amantis, $amant\bar{i}$, etc.; see p. 37, footnote 2. See also Schmitz, pp. 3-26; Ritschl, Rhein. Museum, xxxi, p. 485; Müller, p. 27.

Participles used adjectively may of course take \bar{i} . A few adjectives have only e in general use:—(1) pauper, paupere, poor; pūbes, pūbere, mature;—(2) those in es, G. itis or idis: āles, dēses, dīves, sōspes, superstes; (3) caelebs, compos, impos, prīnceps.

158.	Vetus, old.		Memor, mind	ful.
		SINGULAR.		
	M. AND F.	NEUT.	M. AND F.	NEUT.
Nom.	vetus	vetus	memor	memor
Gen.	veteris	veteris	memoris	memoris
Dat.	veter 1	veterI	memorI	memorI
Acc.	veterem	vetus	memorem	memor
Voc.	vetus	vetus	memor	memor
Abl.	vetere (1)	vetere (1)	memorI	$\mathbf{memor} \mathbf{I}$
		PLURAL.		
Nom.	veteres	vetera	memores	
Gen.	veterum	veterum	memorum	
Dat.	veteribus	veter ibus	memoribus	
Acc.	veteres (Is)	vetera	memorēs (Is)	
Voc.	veter ēs	vetera	memores	
Abl.	veteribus	veteribus	memoribus	

- 1. NEUTER PLURAL.—Many adjectives like memor, from the nature of their signification, want the Neuter Plural; all others have the ending ia, as fēlīcia, prūdentia, except ūber, ūbera, fertile, and vetus, vetera.
- 2. Gentrive Plural.—Most adjectives have ium, but the following have um:
- 1) Adjectives of one ending with only e in the Ablative Singular (157, note): pauper, pauperum.
- 2) Those with the Genitive in eris, oris, uris: vetus, veterum, old; memor, memorum, mindful; cicur, cicurum, tame.
 - 3) Those in ceps: anceps, ancipitum, doubtful.
- 4) Those compounded with substantives which have um: inops (ops, opum), inopum, helpless.

IRREGULAR ADJECTIVES.

159. Irregular adjectives may be-

- I. Indeclinable: $fr\bar{u}g\bar{\imath}$, frugal, good; $n\bar{e}quam$, worthless; $m\bar{\imath}lle$, thousand; see 176.
- II. Defective: (cēterus) cētera, cēterum, the other, the rest; (lūdicer) lūdicra, lūdicrum, sportive; (sōns) sontis, guilty; (sōminex) sēminecis, half dead; paucī, ae, a, few, used only in the Plural; see also 158, 1.
- III. Heteroclites.—Many adjectives have two distinct forms, one in us, a, um, of the first and second declensions, and one in is and e of the third: hilarus and hilaris, joyful; exanimus and exanimis, lifeless.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

- 160. Adjectives have three forms, called the Positive degree, the Comparative, and the Superlative: altus, altior, altissimus, high, higher, highest. These forms denote different degrees of the quality expressed by the adjective.
- 161. The Latin, like the English, has two modes of comparison:
 - I. TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON—by endings.
 - II. ADVERBIAL COMPARISON—by adverbs.

I. TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON.

162. Adjectives are regularly compared by adding to the stem of the positive the endings:

COMPARATIVE.		SUPERLATIVE.				
Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.	Masc. issimus	FEM. issima	Neut. issimum	1

altus, altior, altissimus, high, higher, highest, levis, levior, levissimus, light, lighter, lightest.

Note.—Vowel Stems lose their final vowel: alto, altior, altissimus.

- 163. IRREGULAR SUPERLATIVES.—Many adjectives with regular comparatives have irregular superlatives. Thus:
- Those in er add rimus to this ending: 1 deer, derior, deerrimus, sharp.
 Note.—Vetus has veterrimus; mātūrus, both mātūrrimus and mātūrissimus; dexter, dextimus.
 - 2. Six in ilis add limus to the stem:1

facilis, difficilis, easy, difficult, similis, dissimilis, like, unlike, gracilis, humilis, slender, low: facilis, facilior, facillimus. Imbēcillis has imbēcillimus.

3. Four in rus have two irregular superlatives:

exterus,	exterior,	extrēmus	and extimus,	outward,
īnferus,	inferior,	Infimus	and īmus,	lower,
superus,	superior,	suprēmus	and summus,	upper,
posterus,	posterior,	postrēmus	and postumus,	next.

¹ The superlative ending is-simus is probably compounded of is, from tōs, the original comparative ending (154, foot-note 4), and simus for timus; iōs-timus = iōs-simus = is-simus. After l and r, the first element is omitted, and s assimilated: facilis, facilismus, facil-limus; ācer, ācer, ācer-simus, ācer-rimus; but those in ilis drop the final vowel of the stem. See Bopp, §§ 291-307; Schleicher, pp. 488-494; Roby, p. lxvi.

164. Egēnus, providus, and compounds in dicus, ficus, and volus, are compared with the endings entior and entissimus, as if from forms in ēns:

egēnus, providēns, maledicus, mūnificus,	egentior, providentior, maledicentior, munificentior,	egentissimus, providentissimus, maledicentissimus, mūnificentissimus,	needy, prudent, slanderous, liberal,
mūnificus,	munificentior,	mūnificentissimus,	liberal,
benevolus,	benevolentior,	benevolentissimus,	benevolent.

Note.—Mirificissimus occurs as the superlative of mirificus, wonderful.

165. Special Irregularities of Comparison.

bonus,	melior,	optimus,	good,
malus,	pējor,	pessimus,	bad,
māgnus,	mājor,	māximus,	great,
parvus,	minor,	minimus,	small,
multus,	plūs,	plūrimus,	much.

Note 1.— $Pl\bar{u}s$ is neuter, and has in the singular only Nom. and Acc. $pl\bar{u}s$, and Gen. $pl\bar{u}ris$. In the plural it has Nom. and Acc. $pl\bar{u}r\bar{e}s$ (m. and f.), $pl\bar{u}ra$ (n.), Gen. $pl\bar{u}rium$, Dat. and Abl. $pl\bar{u}ribus$.

Note 2.—Dives, frūgī, and nēquam are thus compared:

dīves,	dīvitior,	dīvitissimus,) dītissimus.	rich,
frūgī,	frügālior,	frūgālissimus,	frugal,
nēquam,	nēquior,	nēquissimus,	worthless.

166. Positive Wanting.

citerior, deterior, interior,	citimus, dēterrimus, intimus, ōcissimus.	nearer, worse, inner,	prior, propior, ūlterior,	prīmus, prōximus, ūltimus,	former, nearer, farther.
ōcior.	ocissimus.	swifter.	1		

167. Comparative wanting.

- 1. In a few participles used adjectively: meritus, meritissimus, deserving.
- 2. In these adjectives:

	-				
dīversus,	dīversissimus, falsissimus,	different,	novus,	novissimus,	new,
inclutus,	inclutissimus,	renowned,	vetus,	veterrimus,	old.
invītus.	invītissimus.	unwilling.			

Note.—Many participles used adjectively are compared in full: amāns, amantior, amantissimus, loving; dōctus, dōctior, dōctissimus, instructed, learned.

168. Superlative wanting.

- 1. In most verbals in ilis and bilis: docilis, docilior, docile.
- 2. In many adjectives in ālis and īlis: capitālis, capitālior, capital.
- 3. In alacer, alacrior, active; caecus, blind; diūturnus, lasting; longīnquus, distant; opīmus, rich; prōclīvis, steep; propinquus, near; salūtūris, salutary, and a few others.
 - 4. Three adjectives supply the superlative thus:

adolēscēns,	adolescentior,	minimus nātū,1	young,
juvenis,	jūnior,	minimus nātū,	young,
senex,	senior,	māximus nātū,	old.

169. WITHOUT TERMINATIONAL COMPARISON.

1. Many adjectives, from the nature of their signification, especially such as denote material, possession, or the relations of place and time: aureus, golden; paternus, paternal; Römānus, Roman; aestīvus, of summer.

2. Most adjectives in us preceded by a vowel: idōneus, suitable.

 Many derivatives in ālis, āris, īlis, ulus, icus, īnus, ōrus: mortālis (mors), mortal.

4. Albus, white; claudus, lame; fērus, wild; lassus, weary; mīrus, wonderful, and a few others.

II. ADVERBIAL COMPARISON.

170. Adjectives which want the terminational comparison, form the comparative and superlative, when their signification requires it, by prefixing the adverbs magis, more, and māxime, most, to the positive: arduus, magis arduus, māxime arduus, arduous.

1. Other adverbs are sometimes used with the positive to denote different degrees of the quality: admodum, valdē, oppidē, very; imprīmēs, apprīmē, in the highest degree. Per and prae in composition with adjectives have the force of very: perdifficilis, very difficult; praeclārus, very illustrious.

2. Strengthening particles are also sometimes used—(1) With the comparative: etiam, even, multō, longē, much, far: etiam dīligentior, even more diligent; multō dīligentior, much more diligent—(2) With the superlative: multō, longē, much, by far; quam, as possible: multō or longē dīligentissimus, by far the most diligent; quam dīligentissimus, as diligent as possible.

NUMERALS.

171. Numerals comprise numeral adjectives and numeral adverbs.²

172. Numeral adjectives comprise three principal classes:

1. CARDINAL NUMBERS: ūnus, one; duo, two.

2. Ordinal Numbers: prīmus, first; secundus, second.

3. DISTRIBUTIVES: $singul\bar{\imath}$, one by one; $b\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}$, two by two, two each, two apiece.

173. To these may be added—

¹ Smallest or youngest in age. $N\bar{a}t\bar{u}$ is sometimes omitted.

² The first ten cardinal numbers, *mīlle*, *prīmus*, *secundus*, and *semel* (once), fourteen words in all, furnish the basis of the Latin numeral system. All other numerals are formed from these either by derivation or by composition.

- 1. MULTIPLICATIVES, adjectives in plex, Gen. plicis, denoting so many fold: simplex, single; duplex, double; triplex, threefold.
- 2. Proportionals, declined like bonus, and denoting so many times as great: duplus, twice as great; triplus, three times as great.

174. TABLE OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES:

CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.
1. ūnus, ūna, ūnum	prīmus, <i>first</i>	singulī, one by one
2. duo, duae, duo	secundus,4 second	bini , $two\ by\ two$
3. trēs, tria	tertius, third	ternī (trīnī)
4. quattuor	quartus, <i>fourth</i>	quaternī
quinque	quīntus, <i>fifth</i>	quīnī
6. sex	sextus	sēnī
7. septem	septimus	septēnī
8. octo	octāvus	octonī
9. novem	nōnus	novēnī
10. decem	decimus	dēnī
11. ūndecim	ŭndecimus	ūndēnī
12. duodecim	duodecimus	duodēnī
13. tredecim ¹	tertius decimus 5	ternī dēnī
14. quattuordecim	quartus decimus	quaternī dēnī
15. quindecim	quīntus decimus	quīnī dēnī
16. sědecim or sexdecim 1	sextus decimus	sēnī dēnī
17. septendecim ¹	septimus decimus	septēnī dēnī
18. duodēvīgintī 2	duodēvīcēsimus 6	duodēvīcēnī
19. ŭndëviginti 2	ūndēvīcēsimus ∮	ūndēvīcēnī
20. vīgintī	vicēsimus 7	vīcēnī
21. vīgintī ūnus	vīcēsimus prīmus	vīcēni singulī
ūnus et viginti 3	ūnus et vīcēsimus 3	singulī et vīcēnī
22. [viginti duo	vīcēsimus secundus	vicēnī bīnī
duo et viginti	alter et vīcēsimus	bīnī et vīcēnī
30. trīgintā	trīcēsimus 7	trīcēnī
40. quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsimus	quadrāgēnī
50. quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēsimus	quinquāgēni
60. sexāgintā	sexāgēsimus	sexāgēnī
70. septuāgintā	septuāgēsimus	septuāgēnī
80. octōgintā	octōgēsimus	octogenī

1 Sometimes with the parts separated: decem et tres; decem et sex, etc.

 3 If the tens precede the units, et is omitted, otherwise it is generally used. So in English cardinals, twenty-one, one and twenty.

4 Alter is often used for secundus.

⁵ Decimus, with or without et, may precede: decimus et tertius or decimus tertius.

6 Sometimes expressed by addition: octāvus decimus and nonus decimus.

7 Sometimes written with g: vīgēsimus; trīgēsimus.

² Literally two from twenty, one from twenty, by subtraction; but these numbers may be expressed by addition: decem et octo; decem et novem; so 28, 29; 88, 39, etc., either by subtraction from triginti, etc., or by addition to viginti.

	CARDINALS.	ORDINALS.	DISTRIBUTIVES.
90.	nōnāgintā	nõnāgēsimus	nönägēnī
100.	centum	centēsimus	centēnī
101	centum ūnus centum et ūnus 1	centēsimus prīmus	centēnī singulī
101.7	centum et ūnus 1	centēsimus et prīmus	centenī et singulī
200.	ducentī, ae, a	ducentēsimus	ducēnī
300.	trecentī	trecentēsimus	trecēnī
400.	quadringentī	quadringentēsimus	quadringeni
500.	quingenti	quīngentēsimus	quingēnī
600.	sēscentī 2	sēscentēsimus ²	sēscēnī ²
700.	septingentī	septingentēsimus	septingēnī
800.	octingentī	octingentēsimus	octingēnī
900.	nōngentī	nõngentēsimus	nōngēnī
1,000.	mīlle	mīllēsimus	singula mīlia ³
2,000.	duo mīlia 3	bis mīllēsimus	bīna mīlia
100,000.	centum mīlia	centiēs mīllēsimus	centēna mīlia
1,000,000.	deciēs centēna	deciēs centiēs mīllēsi-	decies centena mī-
	mīlia 4	mus	lia

1. Ordinals with pars, part, expressed or understood, may be used to express fractions: tertia pars, a third part, a third; quarta pars, a fourth; duae tertiae, two thirds.

Note.—Cardinal numbers with $part\bar{e}s$ are used in fractions when the denominator is larger than the numerator by one: $duae\ part\bar{e}s$, two thirds, $tr\bar{e}s\ part\bar{e}s$, three fourths, etc.

- 2. DISTRIBUTIVES are used-
- 1) To show the *number* of objects taken at a time, often best rendered by adding to the cardinal *each* or *apiece: ternos dēnārios accēpērunt*, they received *each* three denarii, or three apiece. Hence—
- 2) To express Multiplication: deciès centena milia, ten times a hundred thousand, a million.
- 3) Instead of Cardinals, with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: bīna castra, two camps. Here for singulī and ternī, ūnī and trīnī are used: ūnae lītterae, one letter; trīnae lītterae, three letters.
- 4) Sometimes of objects spoken of in pairs: bīnī scyphī, a pair of goblets; and in the poets with the force of cardinals: bīna hastīlia, two spears.
- 3. Poets use numeral adverbs (181) very freely in compounding numbers: bis sex, for duodecim; bis septem, for quattuordecim.
- 4. Sescenti and mille are sometimes used indefinitely for any large number, as one thousand is used in English.
- ¹ In compounding numbers above 100, units generally follow tens, tens hundreds, etc., as in English; but the connective et is either omitted, or used only between the two highest denominations: mīlle centum vīgintī or mīlle et centum vīgintī, 1120.
 - ² Often incorrectly written sexcentī, sexcentēsimus, and sexcēnī.
 - Often medification written sexcenti, sexcentesimus, and sexcent.

 Soften written millia. For duo milia, bina milia or bis mille is sometimes used.
- ⁴ Literally "ten times a hundred thousand"; the table might be carried up to any desired number by using the proper numeral adverb with centena milia: centies centena milia, 10,000,000; sometimes in such combinations centena milia is understood, and the adverb only is expressed, and sometimes centum milia is used.

DECLENSION OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

175. Unus, Duo, and Tres are declined as follows:

	SING	ULAR.	Ūnus, one.	PLU	RAL.	
Nom.	ūnus	ūna	ūnum	ūnī	ūnae	ūna
Gen.	ūnīus	ūnīus	ūnīus	ūnōrum	ūnārum	ūnōrum
Dat.	ūnī	ūnī	ũnĩ	ūnīs	ūnīs	ūnīs
Acc.	ũnum	ūnam	ünum	ūnōs	ūnās	ūna
Voc.	ūne	ūna	ūnum	ũnĩ	ūnae	ūna
Abl.	ũnõ	ŭnā	ūnō	ūnīs	ũnĩs	ūnīs
	1	Duo, two.		T	rēs, three.	
Nom.	duo	duae	duo 1	trēs, m. an	df.	tria, n.
Gen.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum ²	trium	•	trium
Dat.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus		tribus
Acc.	duōs, duo	duās	duo	trēs, trīs		tria
Voc.	duo	duae	duo	trēs		tria
Abl.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus		tribus

Note 1.—The plural of $\bar{u}nus$ in the sense of alone may be used with any noun: $\bar{u}n\bar{\imath}$ $Ubi\bar{\imath}$, the Ubii alone; but in the sense of one, it is used only with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: $\bar{u}na$ castra, one camp; $\bar{u}na$ \bar{u} \bar{u}

Note 2.-Like duo is declined ambo, both.

Note 3.— $Mult\bar{\imath}$, many, and $pl\bar{u}rim\bar{\imath}$, very many, are indefinite numerals, and as such generally want the singular. But in the poets the singular occurs in the sense of $many\ a: multa\ hostia$, many a victim.

- 176. The Cardinals from quattuor to centum are indeclinable.
- 177. Hundreds are declined like the plural of bonus: ducenti, ae, a.
- 178. Mille as an adjective is indeclinable; as a substantive it is used in the singular in the Nominative and Accusative, but in the plural it is declined like the plural of mare (63): mīlia, mīlium, mīlibus.

Note.—With the substantive mīlle, mīlia, the name of the objects enumerated is generally in the Genitive: mīlle hominum, a thousand men (of men); but if a declined numeral intervenes it takes the case of that numeral: tria mīlia trecentī mīlitēs, three thousand three hundred soldiers.

179. Ordinals are declined like *bonus*, and distributives like the *plural* of *bonus*, but the latter often have $\bar{u}m$ instead of $\bar{o}rum$ in the Genitive: $b\bar{v}n\bar{u}m$ for $b\bar{v}n\bar{v}rum$.

¹ In the ending o in duo and ambo (175, note 2), we have a remnant of the dual number which has otherwise disappeared from the Latin, though preserved in Greek and Sanskrit. Compare the Sanskrit dva, the Greek δvo , the Latin duo, and the English tvo.

² Instead of duōrum and duārum, duūm is sometimes used.

³ Rarely in other cases in connection with mīlium or mīlibus.

⁴ Generally written with one 1: milia, but sometimes with two: millia,

180. NUMERAL SYMBOLS:

ARABIC.	ROMAN.	ARABIC.	ROMAN.	ABABIC.	ROMAN.
1.	I.	12.	XII.	50.	L.
2.	- II.	13.	XIII.	60.	LX.
3.	III.	14.	XIV.	70.	LXX.
4.	IV.	15.	XV.	80.	LXXX.
5.	v.	16.	XVI.	90.	XC.
6.	VI.	17.	XVII.	100.	C.
7.	VII.	18.	XVIII.	200.	CC.
8.	VIII.	19.	XIX.	500.	IO, or D.
9.	IX.	20.	XX.	600.	DC.
10.	X.	30.	XXX.	1,000.	CIO, or M.1
11.	XI.	40.	XL.	10,000.	CCIOO.

- 1. Latin Numeral Symbols are combinations of: I=1; V=5; X=10; L=50; C=100; IO or D=500; CIO or M=1,000.
 - 2. In the Combination of these symbols, except ID, observe-
 - 1) That the repetition of a symbol doubles the value: II = 2; XX = 20.
- 2) That any symbol standing before one of greater value, subtracts its own value, but that after one of greater value, it adds its own value: V = 5; IV = 5 1 = 4; VI = 5 + 1 = 6.
 - 3. In the Combination of IO observe-
- 1) That each O (inverted C) after IO increases the value tenfold: IO = 500; IOO = $500 \times 10 = 5,000$; IOOO = $5,000 \times 10 = 50,000$.
- 2) That these numbers are doubled by placing C the same number of times before I as 3 stands after it: IO = 500; $CIO = 500 \times 2 = 1,000$; IOO = 5,000; $CCIOO = 5,000 \times 2 = 10,000$.
- 3) That smaller symbols standing after these add their value: IO = 500; IOC = 600; IOCC = 700.

NUMERAL ADVERBS.

181. To numerals belong also numeral adverbs:

1. semel, once	5. quinquies 3	9. noviēs
2. bis, twice	6. sexiēs	10. deciēs
3. ter, three times	7. septiēs	11. ündecies
4. quater	8. octies	12. duodecies

¹ Thousands are sometimes denoted by a line over the symbol: $\overline{II} = 2,000$; $\overline{V} = 5,000$.

3 In adverbs formed from cardinal numbers, ies is the approved ending, though iens often occurs. In adverbs from indefinite numeral adjectives iens is the approved ending totiens (from tot), so often; quotiens (from quot), how often. See Brambach, p. 14.

² The origin of these symbols is uncertain. According to Mommsen, I is the outstretched finger; V, the open hand; X, the two hands crossed; L, the open hand like V, but in a different position; CIO is supposed to be a modification of the Greek Φ , not otherwise used by the Romans, afterward changed to M; IO, afterward changed to D, is a part of CIO; C is also supposed to be a modification of the Greek Θ , but it may be the initial letter of centum, as M may be that of mille.

13. terdecies tredecies	20. vīciēs	200. ducenties
13. tredecies	21. semel et vīciēs	300. trecentiës
quaterdecies	22. bis et vīciēs	400. quadringentiës
14. quaterdeciēs quattuordeciēs	30. trīciēs	500. quingenties
15. {quīnquiēsdeciēs quīndeciēs	40. quadrāgiēs	600. sēscentiēs
13. quīndeciēs	50. quīnquāgiēs	700. septingenties
16. { sexiēsdeciēs { sēdeciēs	60. sexāgiēs	800. octingenties
16. (sēdeciēs	70. septuāgiēs	900. nõningentiës nõngentiës
septiēsdeciēs	80. octōgiēs	inongenties
18. duodēvīciēs octiēsdeciēs	90. nõnāgiēs	1,000. mīlliēs ¹
10. locties decies	100. centies	2,000. bis mīlliēs
19. undēvīciēs noviēsdeciēs	101. centies semel	100,000. centies mīllies
noviēsdeciēs	102. centies bis	1,000,000. mīlliēs mīlliēs

Note 1.—In compounds of units and tens, the unit with et generally precedes, as in the table: $bis\ et\ v\bar{v}ci\bar{e}s;$ the tens, however, with or without et, may precede.

Note 2.—Another class of numeral adverbs in um or \bar{v} is formed from the ordinals; $pr\bar{v}mum$, $pr\bar{v}m\bar{v}$, for the first time, in the first place; tertium, $terti\bar{v}$, for the third time.

CHAPTER III

PRONOUNS.

182. In construction, Pronouns are used either as Substantives: ego, I, $t\bar{u}$, thou; or as Adjectives: meus, my, tuus, your.

183. Pronouns are divided into six classes:

- 1. Personal Pronouns : $t\bar{u}$, thou.
- 2. Possessive Pronouns: meus, my.
- 3. Demonstrative Pronouns : $h\bar{i}c$, this.
- 4. Relative Pronouns: $qu\bar{\imath}$, who.
- 5. Interrogative Pronouns: quis, who?
- 6. Indefinite Pronouns: aliquis, some one.

I. Personal Pronouns.

184. Personal Pronouns, so called because they designate the person of the noun which they represent, are:

¹ Millies is often used indefinitely like the English a thousand times.

² But in their signification and use, Pronouns differ widely from ordinary substantives and adjectives, as they never *name* any object, action, or quality, but simply *point out* its relation to the speaker, or to some other person or thing; see 314, II., with foot-note.

³ Also called Substantive Pronouns, because they are always used substantively.

	Ego, I.	Tū, thou.	Suī, of himself, etc.1
		SINGULAR.	
No	m. ego ²	tū	
Ge	n. meī	tuī	suī 1
Da	t. mihī or mī	tibĭ	sibĭ
Ac	c. mē	tē	sē
Vo	oc.	tū	
Ab	ol. mē	tē	sē
		PLURAL.	
No	m. nōs	võs	
a	$en. \begin{cases} ext{nostr$ ilde{u}$m} \\ ext{nostr$ ilde{i}$} \end{cases}$	vestrūm	1 3 suī
U C	nostrī	vestrī	} sui
D_{0}	at. nobis	vōbīs	sibĭ
A	cc. nōs	vōs	sē
V_{i}	oc.	vōs	
A^{i}	bl. nöbīs	võbīs	sē

- 1. The Case-Endings of Pronouns differ considerably from those of Nouns.
- 2. Suī, of himself, etc., is often called the Reflexive pronoun.
- 3. EMPHATIO FORMS in met occur, except in the Gen. Plur.: egomet, I myself; temet, etc. But the Nom. tū has tūte and tūtemet, not tūmet.
 - 4. REDUPLICATED FORMS.—Sēsē, tētē, mēmē, for sē, tē, mē.
- 5. Ancient and Rare Forms.—Mis for mei; tis for tui; med and mepte for me; ted for te; sed, sepse, for se.
- 6. Cum, when used with the ablative of a Personal Pronoun, is appended to it: mēcum, tēcum.

II. Possessive Pronouns.

185. From *Personal* pronouns are formed the *Possessives*:

meus, a, um, my; noster, tra, trum, our; tuus, a, um, thy, your; vester, tra, trum, your; suus, a, um, his, hers, its; suus, a, um, their.

 2 Ego has no connection in form with $me\bar{\imath}$, $mih\bar{\imath}$, etc., but it corresponds to the Greek $\dot{\epsilon}\gamma\dot{\omega}\nu$, $\dot{\epsilon}\gamma\dot{\omega}$. The oblique cases of ego and $t\bar{u}$ in the singular are derived from the Indo-European roots ma and tva. Compare the Accusative Singular of each in—

SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.	ENGLISH.
mā-m or mā,	μ έ ,	mē,	me.
tvā-m or tvā,	τέ οτ σέ,	tē,	thee.

 $Su\bar{\imath}$, $sib\bar{\imath}$, $s\bar{e}$, in both numbers are formed from the root sva. The origin of the plural forms of ego and $t\bar{u}$ is obscure. See Papillon, pp. 142-149; Kühner, I., pp. 378-382.

¹ Of himself, herself, itself. The Nominative is not used.

³ Vestrūm and vestrī are also written vostrūm and vostrī, though less correctly. Meī, tuī, suī, nostrī, and vestrī, are in form strictly Possessives in the Gen. Sing., but by use they have become Personal. Nostrī and vestrī have also become Plural. Thus, memor vestrī, 'mindful of you,' means literally mindful of yours, i. e., of your welfare, interest. Nostrūm and vestrūm, for nostrūrum and vestrūrum, are also Possessives; see 185.

Note 1.—Possessives are declined as adjectives of the first and second declensions; but *meus* has in the Vocative Singular Masculine generally $m\tilde{\iota}$, sometimes *meus*, and in the Genitive Plural sometimes $me\tilde{u}m$ instead of $me\tilde{o}rum$.

Note 2.- Emphatic forms in pte and met occur: suapte, suamet.

Note 3.—Other possessives are: (1) cūjus, a, um,² 'whose,' and cūjus, a, um,³ 'whose,' declined like bonus, and (2) the Patrials, nostrās, Genitive ātis, 'of our country,' vestrās, Genitive ātis, 'of your country,' and cūjās, Genitive ātis, 'of whose country,' declined as adjectives of Declension III.

III. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

186. Demonstrative Pronouns, so called because they specify the objects to which they refer, are declined as follows:

I. Hic, this.4

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.			
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	hĭc	haec	hŏc	$h ilde{\imath}$	hae 7	haec
Gen.	hūjus	hūjus	hūjus ⁵	hōrum	hārum	$h\bar{o}$ rum
Dat.	huic	huic	huic	hīs	hīs	hīs
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hốc ⁶	$h\bar{o}s$	hās	haec
Abl.	hōc	hāc	hōc	hīs	hīs	$h\overline{s}$

II. Iste, that, that of yours; 8 see 450.

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	iste	ista	istud	istī	istae	ista
Gen.	istĭus	istĭus	istĭus ⁵	istōrum	istārum	$ist\bar{o}rum$
Dat.	istī	istī	istī	istīs	istīs	istīs
Acc.	istum	istam	istud 6	istōs	istās	ista
Abl.	istō	istā —	istō	istīs	istīs	istīs

- ¹ In early Latin tuus is sometimes written tovos, and suus, sovos.
- ² From the relative qui, cūjus (187), also written quōius.
- From the interrogative quis, cūjus (188), also written quōius.
- 4 The stem of ħžc is ho, ha, which by the addition of i, another pronominal stem, seen in i-s, 'he,' becomes in certain cases ħž (for ho-i), hae (for ha-i), as in ħž-c, hae-c. The forms ho, ha, appear in hŏ-c, ha-nc. Ancient and rare forms of this pronoun are hōe (for ħžc), hōius (for ħūjus), hoic, hoice (for huic), hone (for hunc), heis, heisce, hīs, hōsce (for hīce, hī), hībus (for hīz).
- ⁵ The Genitive suffix is us, appended to the stem after the addition of i (foot-note 4): $ho \cdot i \cdot us$, $hij \cdot us$ (i changed to j between two vowels, 28); $i \cdot sto \cdot i \cdot us$, $i \cdot sti \cdot us$ (i retained after a consonant). The suffix us, originally as, is in origin the same as the suffix is in the third declension. In one the original vowel a is weakened to u, and in the other to i. See Wordsworth, p. 95; Corssen, I. p. 307.

In prose i in the ending tus is generally long.

- ⁶ Demonstrative, Relative, Interrogative, and Indefinite Pronouns want the Vocative.
- 7 Here the form with c, haec, is sometimes used.
- ⁸ The stem of iste (for istus) is isto in the Masc. and Neut., and ista in the Fem. O is weakened to e in iste (24, 1, note) and to u in istu-d. Ancient and rare forms of iste

III. Ille, that, that one, he, is declined like iste; see II. on the preceding page.

IV. Is, he, this, that.2

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.			
	MASO.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	
Nom.	is	ea	id	eī, iī	eae	ea	
Gen.	ējus	ējus	ējus	eōrum	eārum	eōrum	
Dat.	ĕī	ĕī	ĕī ³	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	
Acc.	eum	eam	id 4	eōs	eās	ea	
Abl.	eō	eā	еō	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	

V. Ipse, self, he.5

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.		
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	Masc.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	ipse	ipsa	ipsum	$ips\bar{\imath}$	ipsae	ipsa
Gen.	ipsĭus	ipsĭus	ipsĭus	ipsōrum	ipsārum	ipsõrum
Dat.	$ips\bar{\imath}$	$ips\bar{\imath}$	$ips\bar{\imath}$	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Acc.	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa
Abl.	$ips\bar{o}$	ipsā	$ips\bar{o}$	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs

VI. Idem, the same.6

are istus (for istė), forms in \(\bar{i}\), as, \(\bar{i}\) (for \(\bar{i}us\)) in the Genitive, and in \(\bar{o}\), as, \(\bar{o}\) (for \(\bar{i}\)) in the Dat.; ist\(\bar{i}\) (for ist\(\bar{i}us\)), ist\(\bar{o}\) (for ist\(\bar{i}us\)), istae (for ist\(\bar{i}us\)) or ist\(\bar{i}us\)).

- ¹ The stem of ille (for illus) is illo, illo. Ancient and rare forms are (1) illus (for ille), forms in $\bar{\imath}$, ae, $\bar{\imath}$ (for $\bar{\imath}$ us) in the Genitive Singular, and in $\bar{\imath}$, ae, $\bar{\imath}$ (for $\bar{\imath}$) in the Dative Singular: ill $\bar{\imath}$ (for illus), etc.; (2) forms from ollus or olle (for those from ille): ollus, olle, olla, etc.
- The stem of is is i, strengthened in most of its case-forms to eo, ea. Ancient or rare forms of is are, eis (for is); \(\vec{e}\)-i-ei, ei-ei, i-ei, eae (for Dative Singular \(\vec{e}\)t); im, em (for eum); \(\vec{e}\)-ieis, i-eis, eieis, eise, eise (for Nominative Plural \(\vec{e}\)i); \(\vec{e}\)-i-eis, ei-eis, e-eis, \(\vec{e}\)bus, e\(\vec{a}\)bus, e\(\vec{a}\)bus (for \(\vec{e}\)is. To these may be added a few rare forms from a root of kindred meaning, so, sa: sum, sam=eum, eam; \(\vec{e}\)os, e\(\vec{a}\)s, e\(\vec{e}\)s, e\(\vec{e}\)s. This root appears in \(\vec{e}\)-sus, \(\vec{e}\)-sus, \(\vec{e}\)-sum. S\(\vec{e}\), if, and \(\vec{e}\)-c, thus, are probably Locatives from this root or from \(\vec{e}\)u, the root of \(\vec{e}\)u\(\vec{e}\). (184).
- ³ Sometimes a diphthong in poetry. In the same way the plural forms $e\bar{\iota}$, $i\bar{\imath}$, $e\bar{\imath}s$, $i\bar{\imath}s$, are sometimes monosyllables. Instead of $i\bar{\imath}$ and $i\bar{\imath}s$, $\bar{\imath}$ and $i\bar{s}s$ are sometimes written.
 - 4 See page 72, foot-note 6.
- by Ipse (for ipsus = i-pe-sus) is compounded of is or its stem i, the intensive particle pe, 'even,' 'indeed,' and the pronominal root so, sa, mentioned in foot-note 2 above. The stem is ipso, ipsa, but forms occur with the first part declined and pse unchanged: eum-pse, eam-pse, etc.; sometimes combined with rē: reāpse = rē-eāpse = rē ipsā, 'in reality.' Ipsus (for ipse) is not uncommon.
- 6 In idem, compounded of is and dem, only the first part is declined. Isdem is shortened to idem, iddem to idem, and m is changed to n before dem (33, 4). In early Latin eisdem and isdem occur for idem; eidem and idem for idem; eisdem and idem in the Nominative Plural for eidem.

2.5		SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	īdem	eadem	idem	{ eīdem ² } iīdem	eaedem	eadem
Gen.	ējusdem	ējusdem	ĕjusdem	eōrundem	eārundem	eōrundem
Dat.	ĕīdem	ĕīdem	ĕīdem ¹	{ eīsdem { iīsdem	eīsdem iīsdem	eīsdem ² iīsdem
Acc.	eundem	eandem	idem	$e\bar{o}sdem$	eāsdem	eadem
Abl.	eõdem	eādem	eödem	{ eīsdem { iīsdem	eīsdem iīsdem	eīsdem ⁹ iīsdem

1. His (for $\hbar \bar{\imath}$ -ce) is compounded with the demonstrative particle ce, meaning here. The forms in c have dropped e, while the other forms have dropped the particle entirely. But ce is often retained for emphasis; $\hbar \bar{\imath}$ -ce, $\hbar \bar{\imath}$ -jusce, $\hbar \bar{\imath}$ -sce, $\hbar \bar{\imath}$ -runce (m changed to n), $\hbar \bar{\imath}$ -runc (e dropped). Ce, changed to ci, is generally retained before the interrogative ne: $\hbar \bar{\imath}$ -cine, $\hbar \bar{\imath}$ -scine.

2. ILLE AND ISTEC, also compounded with the particle ce, are declined alike, as follows:

		SINGULA	AR.		PLURAL.	
	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.	MASC.	FEM.	NEUT.
Nom.	illře	illaec	illūc (illōc)	illīc	illacc	illaec
Gen.	illĭusce	illĭusce	illĭusce 4			
Dat.	illīc	illīc	illīe	illīsce	illīsce	illīsce
Acc.	illune	illanc	illūc (illōc)	illōsce	illāsce	illaec
Abl.	illōc	illāc	illōe	illīsce	illīsce	illisce

3. Syncopated Forms, compounded of ecce or ēn, 'lo,' 'see,' and some cases of demonstratives, especially the Accusative of ille and is, occur: eccūm for ecce eum; eccūs for ecce eūs; ēllum for ēn illum; ēllam for ēn illam.

4. Demonstrative Adjectives: tālis, e, such; tantus, a, um, so great; tot, so many; totus, a, um, so great. Tot is indeclinable; the rest regular.

Note.—For talls, the Genitive of a demonstrative with modī (Genitive of modus, measure, kind) is often used: hūjusmodī, ējusmodī, of this kind, such.

IV. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

187. The Relative $qu\bar{\imath}$, 'who,' so called because it relates to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, called its antecedent, is declined as follows: ⁵

¹ Sometimes a dissyllable.

² Eīdem and eīsdem are the approved forms. Instead of iīdem and iīsdem, dissyllables in poetry, īdem and īsdem are often written.

³ Illic and istic are formed from the stems of ille and iste in the same manner as hio is formed from its stem; see page 72, foot-note 4.

[•] Observe that ce is retained in full after s, but shortened to c in all other situations.

⁵ The stem of quī is quo, qua, which becomes co, cu in cūjus and cui. Quī and

		SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
Dat.	Masc. quī cūjus cui quem 1	FEM. quae cūjus cui quam	NEUT. quod cūjus cui quod	Masc. quī quōrum quibus quōs	FEM. quae quārum quibus quās	NEUT. quae quōrum quibus quae
Abl.	quō	quā	quō	quibus	quibus	quibus

1. $Qui_2 = qu\bar{o}$, $qu\bar{a}$, 'with which,' 'wherewith,' is a *Locative* or *Ablative* of the relative $qu\bar{i}$.

2. Cum, when used with the Ablative of the relative, is generally appended to it: quibuscum.

3. Quīcumque and Quisquis, 'whoever,' are called from their signification general relatives.' Quisumque (quīcunque) is declined like quī. Quisquis is rare except in the forms, quisquis, quidquid (quicquid), quōquō.

Note.—The parts of $Qu\bar{\imath}cumque$ are sometimes separated by one or more words: $qu\bar{\imath}$ $r\bar{e}$ cumque.

4. RELATIVE ADJECTIVES: quālis, e, such as; quantus, a, um, so great; quot, as many as; quotus, a, um, of which number; and the double and compound forms: quālisquālis, quāliscumque, etc.

Note.—For Quālis the Genitive of the relative with modī is often used: cūjusmodī, of what kind, such as; cūjuscumquemodī, cuicuimodī (for cūjuscūjusmodī), of whatever kind.

V. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

188. The Interrogative Pronouns quis and qui, with their compounds, are used in asking questions. They are declined as follows:

quae are formed from quo and qua like $h\tilde{\imath}$ and hae in $h\tilde{\imath}$ -c and hae-c from ho and ha; see 186, I., foot-note 4. Ancient or rare forms are quei, quis (for $qu\tilde{\imath}$), Nom. Sing.; $qu\tilde{o}ius$ (i=j); quoi, cui (for $c\tilde{u}jus$, as in $cuimod\tilde{\imath}=c\tilde{u}jusmod\tilde{\imath}$), quoiei, quoi (for cui); $qu\tilde{e}s$ (for $qu\tilde{\imath}$), Nom. Plur.; quai (for quae), Fem. and Neut. Plur.; queis, $qu\tilde{\imath}s$ (for quibus).

¹ An Accusative quom, also written quum and cum, formed directly from the stem quo, became the conjunction quom, quum, cum, 'when,' lit. during which, i. e., during which time. Indeed, several conjunctions are in their origin Accusatives of pronouns: quam, 'in what way,' 'how,' is the Accusative of qui; quamquam, 'however much,' the Accusative of quis-quis (187, 3); tum, 'then,' and tam, 'so,' Accusatives of the pronominal stem to, ta, seen in is-tus, is-te, is-ta (186, II., foot-note 3).

² This is an element in $qu\bar{\imath}n = qu\bar{\imath}-ne$, by which not, that not, and in $qu\bar{\imath}ppe = qu\bar{\imath}-pe$, indeed.

³ Relative pronouns, adjectives, and adverbs may be made *general* in signification by taking *cumque*, like *qui-cumque*, or by being doubled like *quis-quis: quālis-cumque*, *quālis-quālis*, of whatever kind; *ubi-cumque*, *ubi-ubī*, wheresoever.

4 The relative $qu\bar{\imath}$, the interrogatives $qui\bar{\imath}$, $qu\bar{\imath}$, and the indefinites $qui\bar{\imath}$, $qu\bar{\imath}$, are all formed from the stem quo, qua. The ancient and rare forms are nearly the same in all; see page 74, foot-note 5.

I. Quis, who, which, what?

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.			
Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc.	Masc. quis	FEM. quae cūjus cui quam quā	Neut. quid cūjus cui quid quō	MASC. quī quōrum quibus quōs quibus	FEM. quae quārum quibus quās quibus	NEUT. quae quōrum quibus quae quibus

II. Qui, which, what? is declined like the relative qui.

- 1. Quis is generally used substantively, and Quī, adjectively. The forms quis and quem are sometimes feminine.
- 2. Qui_1 , how? in what way? is a Locative or Ablative of the interrogative quis; see 187, 1.
- 3. Compounds of quis and qui are declined like the simple pronouns: quisnam, quinam, ecquis, etc. But ecquis has sometimes ecqua for ecquae.
- 4. Interrogative Adjectives: quālis, e, what? quantus, a, um, how great? quot, how many? quotus, a, um, of what number? uter, utra, utrum, which (of two)? see 151.

VI. Indefinite Pronouns.

- 189. Indefinite Pronouns do not refer to any definite persons or things. The most important are quis and $qu\bar{\imath}$, with their compounds.
- 190. Quis, 'any one,' and $qu\bar{\imath}$, 'any one,' 'any,' are the same in form and declension as the interrogatives quis and $qu\bar{\imath}$. But—
- 1. After sī, nisi, nē, and num, the Fem. Sing. and Neut. Plur. have quae or qua: sī quae, sī qua.
 - From quis and qui are formed—

1) The Indefinites:

aliquis, quispiam,	'	quidpiam		some, some one. some, some one.
quīdam, quisquam,			or quoddam,3 or quidquam,4	certain, certain one. any one.

¹ Aliquis is compounded of ali, seen in ali-us; quisquam, of quis and quam; quisque, of quis and que (from $qu\bar{v}$); $qu\bar{v}v\bar{v}$, of $qu\bar{v}$ and the verb $v\bar{v}s$ (293), 'you wish'—hence $qu\bar{v}$ -v $\bar{v}s$, 'any you wish'; $qu\bar{v}$ libet, of $qu\bar{v}$ and the impersonal libet, 'it pleases.'

² Also written quippiam, quoppiam.

³ Quidam changes m to n before d: quendam for quemdam.

⁴ Quisquam generally wants the Fem. and the Plur.

2) The General Indefinites:

quisque,	quaeque,	quidque	or quodque,1 or quodvīs,	every, every one.
quīvīs,	quaevīs,	quidvīs		any one you please.
quīlibet,	quaelibet,	quidlibet	or quodlibet,	any one you please.

NOTE 1.—These compounds are generally declined like quis and qui, but they have in the Neut. Sing. quod used adjectively, and quid substantively.

Note 2.—Aliquis has aliqua instead of aliquae in the Fem. Sing. and Neut. Plur. Aliqui for aliquis occurs.

191. The correspondence which exists between Demonstratives, Relatives, Interrogatives, and Indefinites, is seen in the following

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES.

INTERROGATIVE.	Indefinite.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.
quis, quī, who? what?2	quis, quī, any one, any; aliquis, some one, some; quīdam, certain one, certain;	hžc, this one, this; iste, that one, that; itle, that one, that; is, he, that;	quĩ,³ who.
uter, which of two? uter or alteruter, either of two; uterque, each, both		uterque, each, both;5	quī, who.
quālis, of what kind?	quālislibet,3 of any kind;	tālis, such;	quālis,³ as.
quantus, how great?	aliquantus, some- what great; quan- tusvīs, as great as you please;	tantus, so great;	quantus,3 as, as great.
quot, how many?	aliquot, some;	tot, so many;	quot, as, as many.

Note.—Nesciŏ quis, 'I know not who,' has become in effect an indefinite pronoun = quīdam, 'some one.' So also nesciŏ quī, 'I know not which' or 'what' = 'some'; nesciŏ quot = aliquot, 'some,' 'a certain number.'

¹ In unus-quisque both parts are regularly declined.

² Observe that the question quis or quī, who or what? may be answered indefinitely by quis, quī, aliquis, etc., or definitely by a demonstrative, either alone or with a relative, as by hīc, this one, or hīc quī, this one who; is, he, or is quī, he who, etc.

² In form observe that the indefinite is either the same as the interrogative or is a compound of it: quis, ali-quis, quī, quī-dam, and that the relative is usually the same as the interrogative.

⁴ On hic, iste, ille, and is, see 450; 451, 1.

⁵ Or one of the demonstratives, hic, iste, etc.

CHAPTER IV.

VERBS.

- 192. Verbs in Latin, as in English, express existence, condition, or action: est, he is; dormit, he is sleeping; legit, he reads.
 - 193. Verbs comprise two principal classes:
- I. TRANSITIVE VERBS admit a direct object of the action: servum verberat, he beats the slave.
- II. Intransitive Verbs do not admit such an object: puer currit, the boy runs.
 - 194. Verbs have Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person.

I. Voices.

195. There are two voices:

- I. The ACTIVE VOICE² represents the subject as ACTING or EXISTING: pater filium amat, the father loves his son; est, he is.
- II. The Passive Voice represents the subject as acted upon by some other person or thing: $f\bar{\imath}lius\ \bar{a}\ patre\ am\bar{a}tur$, the son is loved by his father.
- 1. Intransitive Verbs generally have only the active voice, but are sometimes used impersonally in the passive; see 301, 1.
- 2. DEPONENT VERES 3 are Passive in form, but not in sense: loquor, to speak. But see 231.

II. Moods.

196. There are three moods:4

¹ Here servum, 'the slave,' is the object of the action: beats (what?) the slave. The object thus completes the meaning of the verb. He beats is incomplete in sense, but the boy runs is complete, and accordingly does not admit an object.

² Voice shows whether the subject acts (Active Voice), or is acted upon (Passive Voice). Thus, with the Active Voice, 'the father loves his son,' the subject, father, is the one who performs the action, loves, while with the Passive Voice, 'the son is loved by the father,' the subject, son, merely receives the action, is acted upon, is loved.

³ So called from depono, to lay aside, as they dispense, in general, with the active form and the passive meaning. For deponent verbs with the sense of the Greek Middle, see 465.

⁴ Mood, or Mode, means manner, and relates to the manner in which the meaning of the verb is expressed, as will be seen by observing the force of the several Moods.

VERBS. 79

I. The INDICATIVE Mood either asserts something as a fact or inquires after the fact:

Legit, HE IS READING. Legitne, IS HE READING? Servius rēgnāvit, Servius reigned. Quis ego sum, who am If

- II. The Subjunctive Mood expresses not an actual fact, but a possibility or conception. It is best translated '—
- 1. Sometimes by the English auxiliaries, 2 let, may, might, should, would:

Anèmus patriam, let us love our country. Sint beātī, may they be happy. Quaerat quispiam, some one may inquire. Hốc nêmo dixerit, no one would say this. Ego cènseam, I should think, or I am inclined to think. Ēnītitur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer. Domum ubǐ habitāret, lēgit, he selected a house where he might dwell.

2. Sometimes by the English *Indicative*, especially by the Future forms with *shall* and *will*:

Huic cēdāmus, shall we yield to this one? Quid dies ferat incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Dubitő num dēbeam, I doubt whether I ought. Quaesīvit sī licēret, he inquired whether it was lawful.

3. Sometimes by the Imperative, especially in prohibitions:

Scribere në pigrëre, do not neglect to write. Në transieris Ibërum, do not cross the Ebro.

4. Sometimes by the English Infinitive: 4

Contendit ut rincat, he strives to conquer. Missi sunt qui consulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo.

III. The IMPERATIVE Mood expresses a command or an entreaty:

Jūstitiam cole, practise justice. Tū nē cēde malīs, do not yield to misfortunes.

² This is generally the proper translation in simple sentences and in principal clauses (483), and sometimes even in subordinate clauses (490).

Or, he strives to CONQUER; see 4 below, with foot-note 4.

⁴ The English has a few remnants of the Subjunctive Mood, which may also be used in translating the Latin Subjunctive: Utinam possem, would that I WERE ABLE.

¹ The use and proper translation of the Subjunctive must be learned from the Syntax. A few illustrations are here given to aid the learner in understanding the Paradigms of the Verbs; see 477-530.

Observe, however, that the Infinitive here is not the translation of the Subjunctive alone, but of the Subjunctive with its subject and connective: ut vincat, to conquer (lit., that he may conquer); qui consulerent, to consult (lit., who should or would consult).

III. TENSES.

197. There are six tenses:

- I. THREE TENSES FOR INCOMPLETE ACTION:
- 1. Present: amo, I love, I am loving.
- 2. Imperfect: amābam, I was loving, I loved.
- 3. Future: amābō, I shall love, I will love.
- II. THREE TENSES FOR COMPLETED ACTION:
- 1. Perfect: amāvī, I have loved, I loved.
- 2. Pluperfect: amāveram, I had loved.
- 3. Future Perfect: amāverŏ, I shall have loved.2

Note 1.—The Latin Perfect sometimes corresponds to our Perfect with have (have loved), and is called the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite; and sometimes to our Imperfect or Past (loved), and is called the Historical Perfect or Perfect Indefinite.³

NOTE 2.—The Indicative Mood has all the six tenses; the Subjunctive has the Present, Imperfect, Perfect, and Pluperfect; the Imperative, the Present and Future only.⁴

198. Principal and Historical.—Tenses are also distinguished as—

- I. PRINCIPAL OF PRIMARY TENSES:
- 1. Present: amo, I love.
- 2. Present Perfect: amāvī, I have loved.3
- 3. Future: amābō, I shall love.
- 4. Future Perfect: amāverŏ, I shall have loved.
- II. HISTORICAL OF SECONDARY TENSES:
- 1. Imperfect: amābam, I was loving.
- 2. Historical Perfect: amāvī, I loved.3
- 3. Pluperfect: amāveram, I had loved.

¹ Or, I do love. The English did may also be used in translating the Imperfect and Perfect: I did love.

² Or, I will have loved.

³ Thus the Latin Perfect combines within itself the force and use of two distinct tenses—the Perfect proper, seen in the Greek Perfect, and the Aorist, seen in the Greek Aorist: amāvī = $\pi \phi i \lambda \eta \pi a$, I have loved; amāvī = $\dot{\epsilon} \phi i \lambda \eta \pi a$, I loved. The Historical Perfect and the Imperfect both represent the action as past, but the former regards it simply as a historical fact—I loved; while the latter regards it as in progress—I was loving.

⁴ The nice distinctions of tense have been fully developed only in the Indicative. In the Subjunctive and Imperative, the *time* of the action is less prominent and is less definitely marked.

199. Numbers and Persons.—There are two numbers, Singular and Plural, and three persons, First, Second, and Third.

Note.—The various verbal forms which have voice, mood, tense, number, and person, make up the *finite verb*.

- 200. Among verbal forms are included the following verbal nouns and adjectives:
- I. The Infinitive is a verbal noun.² It is sometimes best translated by the English *Infinitive*, sometimes by the *verbal noun in* Ing, and sometimes by the *Indicative*:

Extre ex urbe volt, I wish to go out of the city. Gestit source omnia, I long to know all things. Have source juvat, to know these things affords pleasure. Peccare livet nemini, to sin is lawful for no one. Vincere sees, you know how to conquer, or you understand conquering. Te dicunt esses spientem, they say that you are wise. Sentimus caltres ignem, we perceive that fire is hot. See also Syntax, 532-539.

II. The Gerund gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the second declension, used only in the *genitive*, *dative*, *accusative*, and *ablative singular*. It corresponds to the English verbal noun in ING:

Amandī, of loving. Amandī causā, for the sake of loving. Ars vīvendī, the art of living. Cupidus tē audiendī, desirous of hearing you. Ūtilis bibendō, useful for deinking. Ad discendum prōpēnsus, inclined to learn, or to learning. Mēns discendō alitur, the mind is nourished by learning. See also Syntax, 541-544.

III. The SUPINE gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the fourth declension. It has a form in um and a form in ū:

Amātum, to love, for loving. Amātū, to be loved, for loving, in

¹ As in Nouns; see 44.

² The Infinitive has the characteristics both of verbs and of nouns. As a verb, it governs oblique cases and takes adverbial modifiers; as a noun, it is itself governed. In origin it is a verbal noun in the Dative or Locative. See Jolly, pp. 179-200.

³ Observe that the infinitive vincers may be translated by the English infinitive, to conquer, or by the verbal noun, conquering.

⁴ Observe that the infinitives esse and calère are translated by the indicative are and is (is hot); and that the Acc. ië, the subject of esse, is translated by the Nom. you, the subject of are; and that the Acc. ignem, the subject of calère, is translated by the Nom. fire, the subject of is.

⁶ Occasionally the Gerund, especially with a preposition, may be thus translated by the English infinitive.

82 VERBS.

LOVING. Auxilium postulātum vēnit, he came to ask aid. Difficile dictū est, it is difficult to tell. See Syntax, 545-547.

NOTE.—The Supine in um is an Accusative in form, while the Supine in \bar{u} may be either a Dative or an Ablative; see 116.

IV. The Participle in Latin, as in English, gives the meaning of the verb in the form of an adjective. It is sometimes best translated by the English *Participle* or *Infinitive*, and sometimes by a *Clause*:

Amāns, loving. Amātūrus, about to love. Amātus, loved. Amandus, deserving to be loved. Platō scrībēns mortuus est, Plato died while writing, or while he was writing. Sōl oriens diem conficit, the sun rising, or when it rises, 2 causes the day. Rediit bellī cāsum tentātūrus, he returned to try (lit., about to try) the fortune of war. In amīcīs ēligendīs, 3 in selecting friends. See Syntax, 548-550.

Note.—A Latin verb may have four participles: two in the Active, the Present and the Future, amāns, amātūrus; and two in the Passive, the Perfect and the Gerundive, amānus, amandus.

CONJUGATION.

201. Regular verbs are inflected, or conjugated, in four different ways, and are accordingly divided into Four Conjugations, distinguished from each other by the stem characteristics or by the endings of the Infinitive, as follows:

	CHARACTERISTICS.	Infinitive Endings.
Conj. I.	ā	ā-re
II.	ē	ē-re
III.	e	e-re
IV.	ĩ	ī-re

202. PRINCIPAL PARTS.—The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and Supine are called from their importance the *Principal Parts* of the verb.

Participles are verbs in force, but adjectives in form and inflection. As verbs, they govern oblique cases; as adjectives, they agree with nouns.

² Or by its rising.

³ Sometimes called the Future Passive Participle. In agreement with a noun, it is often best translated like a gerund governing that noun; see 544.

⁴ The Four Conjugations are only varieties of one general system of inflection, as the differences between them have been produced in the main by the union of different final letters in the various stems with one general system of suffixes; see Comparative View of Conjugations, 213-216.

Note 1.—In the inflection of verbs it is found convenient to recognize four stems:

- 1) The Verb-Stem, which is the basis of the entire conjugation. This is often called simply the Stem.
- 2) Three Special Stems, the Present Stem, the Perfect Stem, and the Suppine Stem.

Note 2.—The Special Stems are formed from the Verb-Stem, unless they are identical with it.1

- 203. The Entire Conjugation of any regular verb may be readily formed from the Principal Parts by means of the proper endings.²
- 1. Sum, I am, is used as an auxiliary in the passive voice of regular verbs. Accordingly, its conjugation, though quite irregular, must be given at the outset. The Principal Parts are—

Pres. Indic. Pres. Infin. Perf. Indic. sum, I am, esse, to be, ful, I have been.

Note 1.—Sum has no Supine.

Note 2.—Two independent stems or roots 3 are used in the conjugation of this verb, viz.: (1) es, seen in s-um (for es-um) and in es-se, and (2) fu, seen in fu- $\bar{\imath}$.

¹ For the treatment of Stems, see 249-256. In many verbs the stem is itself derived from a more primitive form called a *Root*. For the distinction between *roots* and *stems*, and for the manner in which the latter are formed from the former, see 313-318.

² In the Paradigms of regular verbs, the endings which distinguish the various forms are separately indicated, and should be carefully noticed. In the parts derived from the

present stem (222, I.) each ending contains the characteristic vowel.

Sanskrit.	GREEK.	LATIN.	English.
as-mi	εί-μί	s-um	a-m
as-i	ἐσ-σί	es ·	ar-t
as-ti	ἐσ-τί	es-t	is
s-mas	ἐσ-μέν for ἐσ-μές	s-umus	ar-e
s-tha	έσ-τέ	es-tis	ar-e
s-anti	ẻ-ντί for ἐσ-ντί	s-unt	ar-e

Every verbal form is thus made by appending to the stem, or root, a pronominal ending meaning I, thou, he, etc. Thus mi, seen in the English me, means I. It is retained in as-mi and $ei\text{-}\mu i$, but shortened to m in s-u-m and a-m. Ti, meaning he, is preserved in as-ti and $e\sigma\text{-}\tau i$, but shortened to t in es-t and lost in es. The stem also undergoes various changes: in Sanskrit it is as, sometimes shortened to s; in Greek es, sometimes shortened to es; in Latin es, sometimes shortened to es, as in Sanskrit; in English es, es, or es.

204. Sum, I am.—Stems, es, fu.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND.	Pres. Inf.	PERF. IND.	SUPINE.1
sum,	esse,	fu ī ,	

INDICATIVE MOOD.

	SINGULAR. PRE	SENT TEN	SE. PLU	RAL.
sum,2	I am,	1	sumus,	we are,
es,	thou art,3		estis.	you are,
est,	he is;		sunt,	they are.
CS E,	110 10 ,	i	Stante,	ineg are.
	I	MPERFECT	•	
er am ,	I was,	1	erāmus,	we were,
er ās ,	thou wast,3		erātis,	you were,
erat,	he was;		erant,	they were.
		FUTURE.		
$er\mathbf{\check{o}},^4$	I shall be,5	1	erimus,	we shall be,
eris,	thou wilt be,		eritis,	you will be,
er it ,	he will be;		erunt,	they will be.
		PERFECT.		
fu I ,	I have been,5	1	fuimus,	we have been,
fulsti,	thou hast been,			you have been,
£24	7. 7 7		fuerunt,)	,
fuit,	he has been ;	1	fu ēre , }	they have been.
	P	LUPERFEC	т.	•
fueram,	I had been,	1	fuerāmus,	we had been,
fuerās,	thou hadst been,		fuerātis,	you had been,
	he had been;			they had been.
	Furu	TRE PERF	ECT.	
fu er ŏ,	I shall have been,		fueržmus,	we shall have been,

fueris,

fuerit,

fueritis,

fuerint,

you will have been,

they will have been.

thou wilt have been,

he will have been;

¹ The Supine is wanting.

² Sum is for esum, eram for esam. Whenever s of the stem es comes between two vowels, e is dropped, as in sum, sunt, or s is changed to r, as in eram, er δ ; see 31, 1. The pupil will observe that the endings which are added to the roots es and fu are distinguished by the type.

³ Or you are, and in the Imperfect, you were; thou is confined mostly to solemn discourse.

⁴ In verbs, final o, marked o, is generally long.

⁵ Or, Future, I will be; Perfect, I was; see 197, note 1.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

	SINGULAR. PRE	SENT.	PLURAL.
sìm,	may I be,1	sīmus,	let us be,
sīs,	mayst thou be,2	s ītis ,	be ye, may you be,
s it ,	let him be, may he be;	sint,	let them be.
	Імре	RFECT.	
essem,	I should be,1	essēmus,	we should be,
essēs,	thou wouldst be,	essētis,	you would be,
esset,	he would be;	essent,	they would be.
	PER	FECT.	
fuerim,	I may have been,1	fuerimus,	we may have been,
fueris,	thou mayst have been,	fueritis,	you may have been,
fu erit ,	he may have been;	fu erint ,	they may have been.
	PLUPE	RFECT.	

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.	es,	be thou,	es te ,	be ye.
Fut.	es tő ,	thou shalt be,3	es tōte , suntŏ,	ye shall be,
	es tŏ ,	he shall be; 3	sunțŏ,	they shall be.

INFINITIVE.

fuissem, I should have been,

fuisset. he would have been :

fuisses, thou wouldst have been,

PARTICIPLE.

fuissemus, we should have been,

fuissētis, you would have been,

fuissent. they would have been.

Pres. esse, to be.

Perf. fuisse, to have been.

Fut. futurus esse,4 to be about to be.

Fut. futurus,4 about to be.

- In the Paradigm all the forms beginning with e or s are from the stem es; all others from the stem fu.5
- 2. Rare Forms:—forem, fores, foret, forent, fore, for essem, esses, esset, essent, futurus esse; siem, sies, siet, sient, or fuam, fuās, fuat, fuant, for sim, sis, sit, sint.

2 Or be thou, or may you be.

3 The Fut. may also be rendered like the Pres., or with let: be thou; let him be.

4 Futurus is declined like bonus. So in the Infinitive: futurus, a, um esse.

¹ On the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II., and remember that it is often best rendered by the Indicative. Thus, sim may often be rendered I am, and fuerim, I have been.

⁵ Es and fu are roots as well as stems. As the basis of this paradigm they are properly stems, but as they are not derived from more primitive forms, they are in themselves roots.

FIRST CONJUGATION: A VERBS.

205. ACTIVE VOICE.—Amo, I love.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, amā.1

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND. PRES. INF. PERF. IND. SUPINE. amð, amāre, amāvī, amātum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE. SINGULAR. PLURAL. amo,1 I love,2 amāmus, we love. you love,3 amās, amātis, you love, amat. he loves; amant. they love. IMPERFECT.

amābam. I was loving. am**ābāmus**, we were loving. amābās, you were loving, amābātis, you were loving. amābat. he was loving: amābant. they were loving. FUTURE.

amābō. I shall love,4 amābimus, we shall love. amābis, you will love, amābitis, you will love. amābit. he will love: amābunt. they will love.

PERFECT.

I have loved,5 amāvī, amāvimus. we have loved. amāvīstī, you have loved, amāvīstis, you have loved, he has loved : amāvit, amaverunt, ere, they have loved.

PLUPERFECT.

amaveram. I had loved. amāverāmus, we had loved, you had loved, you had loved, amāverās, amāverātis, amaverat, he had loved; amāverant, they had loved.

FUTURE PERFECT.

amāvero. I shall have loved,4 | amaverimus, we shall have loved. amāverīs, you will have loved. amāverītis, you will have loved, amaverit. he will have loved ; amaverint. they will have loved.

¹ The final ā of the stem disappears in amo for ama-o, amem, ames, etc., for amaim, ama-īs, etc. Also in the Pass, in amor for ama-or, amer, etc., for ama-ir, etc.; see 23; 27. Final o, marked o, is generally long.

² Or I am loving, I do love. So in the Imperfect, I loved, I was loving, I did love.

³ Or thou lovest. So in the other tenses, thou wast loving, thou wilt love, etc.

⁴ Or I will love. So in the Future Perfect, I shall have loved or I will have loved.

⁵ Or I loved; see 197, note 1.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT. SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

amem, amēs. amet.

may I love,1 may you love, let him love ;

amēmus, amētis. ament,

let us love, may you love, let them love.

IMPERFECT.

am**ārem**, am**ārēs**. amaret,

I should love. you would love. he would love :

amārēmus, we should love, amārētis, you would love, amarent, they would love.

Perfect.

amāverim, amāverīs. amāverit.

I may have loved,2 you may have loved. he may have loved;

amāverīmus, we may have loved, amāverītis, you may have loved, amāverint, they may have loved.

PLUPERFECT.

amāvissem, amāvissēs, amāvisset.

I should have loved,

amāvissēmus, we should have loved, you would have loved, amavissetis, you would have loved, he would have loved; amavissent, they would have loved.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. ama.

Pres. amare.

love thou:

amate,

love ye.

Fut. amato, thou shalt love. amāto, he shall love;

amātōte. am**ant**ō,

ve shall love. they shall love.

INFINITIVE.

to love.

Pres. amans.4

PARTICIPLE. loving.

Perf. amavisse, to have loved. Fut. amaturus sesse, to be about to love.

Fut. amaturus.3 about to love.

GERUND.

Supine.

Gen. amandī, Dat. amando. of loving, for loving.

Acc. amandum, loving, Abl. amando. by loving. Acc. amātum, Abl. amātū.

to love. to love, be loved,

1 On the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

2 Often best rendered I have loved. So in the Pluperfect, I had loved; see 196, IL.

3 Decline like bonus, 148.

4 For declension, see 157.

FIRST CONJUGATION: A VERBS.

206. PASSIVE VOICE.—Amor, I am loved.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, amā.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind.

Pres. Inf.

Perf. Ind. am**ātus sum**.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

I am loved.

PLURAL.

amor amāris, or re amātur am**āmur** am**āminī** am**antur**

IMPERFECT.

I was loved.

am**ābar** am**ābāris**, *or* re am**ābātur** am**ābāmur** am**ābāminī** am**ābantur**

FUTURE.

I shall or will be loved

amābor amāberis, or re amābitur amābimur amābiminī amābuntur

PERFECT.

I have been loved or I was loved.

amātus sum ¹ amātus es amātus est amātī sumus amātī estis amātī sumt

PLUPERFECT. I had been loved.

amātus eram ¹ amātus erās amātus erat amātī erāmus amātī erātis amātī erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been loved.

amātus erō¹ amātus eris amātus erit amātī erimus amātī eritis amātī erunt

¹ Fuī, fuīstī, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc.: amātus fuī for amātus sum. Bo fueram, fuerās, etc., for eram, etc.: also fuerŏ, etc., for erŏ, etc.

PRESENT.

May I be loved, let him be loved,1

SINGULAR.

amētur

PLURAL.

am**er** am**ēris**, or **re** am**ēmur** am**ēminī** am**entur**

IMPERFECT.

I should be loved, he would be loved.1

am**ārer** am**ārēris**, *or* re am**ārētur** amärēmur am**ārēminī** am**ārentu**r

PERFECT.

I may have been loved, or I have been loved.1

amātus sim² amātus sīs amātus sit amātī sīmus amātī sītis amātī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been loved, he would have been loved.1

amātus essem² amātus essēs amātus esset amātī essēmus amātī essētis amātī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. amare, be thou loved;

Fut. amator, thou shalt be loved, amator, he shall be loved;

amāminī, be ye loved.

amantor, they shall be loved.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. amari, to be loved.

Perf. amātus esse,² to have been loved.

Fut. amatumm iri, to be about to be loved.

PARTICIPLE.

Perf. amātus, having been loved.

Ger.3 amandus, to be loved, deserving to be loved.

¹ But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

² Fuerim, fueris, etc., are sometimes used for sim, sis, etc.—So also fuissem, fuisses, etc., for essem, esses, etc.: rarely fuisse for esse.

³ Ger. = Gerundive; see 200, IV., note.

SECOND CONJUGATION: E VERBS.

207. ACTIVE VOICE.—Moneo, I advise.

VERB STEM, mon, moni; PRESENT STEM, monē.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND. moneo.

PRES. INF. monēre. PERF. IND. monuli.

SUPINE. monitum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR. moneŏ mones 4

monet

I advise. monemus monetis monemt.

IMPERFECT.

I was advising, or I advised.

monēbam monabas monebat

monēbāmus monēbātis monebant

PLURAL.

FUTURE.

I shall or will advise.

monēbō monebis monebit monēbimus monēbitis monebunt

PERFECT.

I have advised, or I advised.

monuT monuIstI monuit

monuimus monuistis monuerunt, or ere

PLUPERFECT.

I had advised.

monueram monueras monuerat

monuerāmus monueratis monuerant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have advised.

monuero monueris monuerit monuerimus monueritis monuerint

PRESENT.

May I advise, let him advise.1

singular. moneam moneas moneat PLURAL.
moneāmus
moneātis
moneant

IMPERFECT.

I should advise, he would advise.

mon**ērem** mon**ērēs** mon**ēret** monērēmus monērētis monērent

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Perfect.

I may have advised, or I have advised.1

monu**erim** monu**eris** monu**erit** monu**erimus** monu**eritis** monu**erint**

PLUPERFECT.

I should have advised, he would have advised.

monuissem monuisses monuisses monuissēmus monuissētis monuissent

20世界显示12

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IMPERATIVE.

Pres. monē, advise thou;

| mon**ēte**, advise ye.

Tut. monētō, thou shalt advise, monētō, he shall advise;

mon**ētōte**, ye shall advise, mon**entŏ**, they shall advise.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. mon**ēre**, to advise.

Perf. monu**isse**, to have advised.

Fut. monit**ūrus esse**, to be about

Pres. monens, advising.

to advise.

Fut. moniturus, about to advise.

PARTICIPLE.

GERUND.

Gen. monendl, of advising,
Dat. monendlo, for advising,
Acc. monendum, advising,
Abl. monendlo, by advising.

SUPINE

Acc. monitum, to advise,
Abl. monitu, to advise, be advised.

¹ But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II. 1249 REFFICIAL

² The Pluperfect, like the Perfect, is often rendered by the Indicative: I had advised, you had advised, etc.

SECOND CONJUGATION: E VERBS.

208. PASSIVE VOICE.—Moneor, I am advised.

VERB STEM, mon, moni; PRESENT STEM, monē.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. IND. moneor, PRES. INF. moneri,

PERF. IND. monitus sum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR. moneor

monetur

monēris, or re

I am advised.

IMPERFECT. I was advised.

monebar

monēbāris, or re monebatur

monēbāmur monēbāminī monebantur

PLURAL.

monemur

monemini

monentur

FUTURE.

I shall or will be advised.

monebor monēberis, or re monēbitur

monetriumur monebimini monebuntur

PERFECT.

I have been advised, I was advised.

monitus sum 1 monitus es monitus est

monitI sumus monitī estis moniti sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been advised.

monitus eram 1 monitus erās monitus erat

moniti erāmus monit**ī erātis** moniti erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been advised.

monitus erő 1 monitus eris monitus erit

monitī erimus moniti eritis moniti erunt

¹ See 206, foot-notes.

PRESENT.

May I be advised, let him be advised.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

monear monearis, or re moneāmur moneaminī

moneatur

moneantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be advised, he would be advised,

monerer

moneremur monērēminī

mon**ērēris**, or re

monerentur

moneretur

PERFECT.

I may have been advised, or I have been advised,

monitus sim 1 monitus sīs

moniti simus monitī sītis

monitus sit

monit sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been advised, he would have been advised.2

monitus essem 1

monitī essēmus monitī essētis monitI essent.

monitus essēs monitus esset

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. monere, be thou advised; | monemini, be ye advised.

Fut. monetor, thou shalt be advised.

monetor, he shall be advised; monentor, they shall be advised.

INFINITIVE.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. moneri, to be advised.

Perf. monitus esse. 1 to have been advised.

Perf. monitus, advised.

Fut. monitum IrI, to be about to be advised.

Ger. monendus, to be advised, deserving to be advised.

¹ See 206, foot-notes,

² Or I had been advised, you had been advised, etc.

PRES. IND.

THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS. 209. ACTIVE VOICE,—Regŏ, I rule.

VERB STEM, reg; PRESENT STEM, rege.1

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

PRES. INF.

PERF. IND.

STPINE.

rēxī.2 rēctum.2 rego, regere, Indicative Mood. PRESENT TENSE. I rule. SINGULAR. PLUBAL. regimus regŏ regis regitis regit regunt IMPERFECT. I was ruling, or I ruled. regēbāmus reg**ēbam** regēbās regebātis regēbat regebant FUTURE. I shall or will rule. regam regēmus reges regētis reget regent PERFECT. I have ruled, or I ruled. rēxī rēximus rēxīstī rēxīstis rēxit rexerunt, or ere PLUPERFECT. I had ruled. rēxerāmus rēxeram rēxerātis rēxerās

FUTURE PERFECT.

rexerant

I shall or will have ruled.

rēxerat

rēzer**ŏ** rēzer**imus** rēzer**is** rēzer**itis** rēzerit rēzerint

¹ The characteristic is a variable vowel—ŏ, u, e, i: regŏ, regunt, regĕre, regis; Curtius calls it the thematic vowel; see Curtius, I., p. 199, but on ŏ, see also Meyer, 441.
² See 254: 30: 33. 1.

PRESENT.

May I rule, let him rule,1

SINGULAR. regam

PLURAL. regāmus regatis regant

IMPERFECT.

I should rule, he would rule.

regerem regerēs regeret

regas

regat

regerēmus regerētis regerent

PERFECT.

I may have ruled, or I have ruled.

rëxerim rēxerĭs rëverit

rēxerīmus rēxerītis rëxerint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have ruled, he would have ruled.

rēxissem rēx**issēs** rexisset

rēxissēmus rēxissētis rēxissent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres rege, rule thou;

Fut, regito, thou shalt rule, regito, he shall rule;

regite. rule ye.

regitote, ye shall rule, regunto, they shall rule.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. regere, to rule. Perf. rexisse, to have ruled.

Fut. recturus esse, to be about Fut. recturus, about to rule. to rule.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. regens, ruling.

GERUND.

Gen. regendī, of ruling,

Dat. regendō, for ruling, Acc. regendum, ruling,

Abl. regendo, by ruling.

SUPINE.

Acc. rectum, to rule,

Abl. rēctū, to rule, be ruled.

¹ But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

THIRD CONJUGATION: CONSONANT VERBS.

210. PASSIVE VOICE.—Regor, I am ruled.

VERB STEM, reg; PRESENT STEM, rege.1

PR.	INC	TPAI	. P/	RTS.

PRES. IND. regor,

PRES. INF. regI,

PERF. IND. rēctus¹ sum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

regor

regeris, or re regitur

I am ruled.

PLUBAL. regimur regiminī reguntur

IMPERFECT. I was ruled.

regebar regēbāris, or re regēbātur

regēbāmur regebāminī reg**ēbantur**

FUTURE.

I shall or will be ruled.

regar regeris, or re regetur

regemur reg**ēminī** regentur

PERFECT.

I have been ruled, or I was ruled.

rēctus sum 2 rēctus es rēctus est

rēctī sumus rēctī estis rēctī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been ruled.

rēctus eram² rēctus erās rēctus erat

rēctī erāmus rēctī erātis recti erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been ruled.

rēctus erð? rēctus eris rēctus erit

rēctī erimus rēctī eritis recti erunt

¹ See 209, foot-notes.

² See 206, foot-notes.

PRESENT.

May I be ruled, let him be ruled.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

regar regaris, or re regamur regaminī

regātur

regantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be ruled, he would be ruled.

regerer reg**erēris**, or re regeretur

regerēmur regerēminī regerentur

PERFECT.

I may have been ruled, or I have been ruled.

rēctus sim 1 rectus sis rēctus sit

rēctī sīmus rēctī sītis rēctī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been ruled, he would have been ruled.

rēctus essem 1 rēctus essēs rēctus esset

rēctī essēmus rēctī essētis rēctī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. regere, be thou ruled;

regimini, be ye ruled.

Fut. regitor, thou shalt be ruled, regitor, he shall be ruled;

reguntor, they shall be ruled.

INFINITIVE.

Participle.

Pres. regI, to be ruled.

Perf. rectus esse,1 to have been | Perf. rectus, ruled. ruled.

Fut. rectum IrI, to be about to be ruled.

Ger. regendus, to be ruled, deserving to be ruled.

¹ See 206, foot-notes.

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I VERBS.

211. ACTIVE VOICE.—Audio, I hear.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, audī.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Peer. Ind. Supine. audio, audire, audivi, auditum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

singular. I hear. Plural.
audi**ŏ** audimus
audis auditis
audit audiunt

IMPERFECT.

I was hearing, or I heard.

audiēbam audiēbāmus audiēbās audiēbātis audiēbat audiēbant

FUTURE.

I shall or will hear.

audiam audiēmus audiēs audiētis audiet audient

PERFECT.

I have heard, or I heard.

audīvīsti audīvīstis audīvīstis audīvērunt, or ēre

PLUPERFECT.

I had heard.

audīveram audīverāmus audīverās audīverātis audīverat audīverant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have heard.

audīverš audīveršmus audīveršs audīveritis audīverit audīverint

PRESENT.

May I hear, let him hear,1

SINGULAR. andiam audias audiat

PLURAL. aud**iāmus** audiātis audiant

IMPERFECT.

I should hear, he would hear.

audīrem audīrēs audīret

audīrēmus audīrētis audirent

PERFECT.

I may have heard, or I have heard,

audīverim audīv**er**is audīverit.

audīverīmus andiveritis audiverint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have heard, he would have heard.

audīvissem andīvissēs audīvisset.

audīvissēmus andivissatis audīvissent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. aud1, hear thou; Fut, audīto, thou shalt hear,

audīte.

hear ye. audītote, ye shall hear.

audīto, he shall hear ; INFINITIVE.

audiunto, they shall hear. PARTICIPLE.

Pres. audīre. to hear. Pres. audiens. hearing.

Perf. audīvisse, to have heard.

Fut. audītūrus esse, to be about Fut. audītūrus, about to hear.

to hear.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Gen. audiendI, of hearing, Dat. audiendo, for hearing.

Acc. audiendum, hearing,

Abl. audiendo. by hearing. Acc. audītum, to hear, Abl. audītū, to hear, be heard.

¹ But on the translation of the Subjunctive, see 196, II.

FOURTH CONJUGATION: I VERBS.

212. PASSIVE VOICE.—Audior, I am heard.

VERB STEM AND PRESENT STEM, audī.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. audior,

Pres. Inf. audīrī, Perf. Ind. audītus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR.

aud**ior** aud**iris**, *or* re aud**itur** I am heard.

PLURAL. audīmur audīminī audiuntur

IMPERFECT.

I was heard.

aud**iēbar** aud**iēbāris**, *or* **re** aud**iēbātur** audi**ēbāmur** aud**iēbāminī** aud**iēbantur**

FUTURE.

I shall or will be heard.

audiar audiēris, or re audiētur audi**ēmur** audi**ēminī** audi**entur**

PERFECT.

I have been heard, or I was heard.

audītus sum 1 audītus es audītus est audītī sumus audītī estis audītī sunt

PLUPERFECT.

I had been heard.

audītus eram¹ audītus erās audītus erat audītī erāmus audītī erātis audītī erant

FUTURE PERFECT.

I shall or will have been heard.

audītus erš audītus eris

audītī erimus audītī eritis audītī erunt

¹ See 206, foot-notes.

PRESENT.

May I be heard, let him be heard.

SINGULAR.

PLURAL.

audiar audiāris, or re

audiātur

aud**iāmur** audiāminī audiantur

IMPEREECT.

I should be heard, he would be heard.

audīrer audīrēris, or re audīrētur

audīrēmur audīrēminī audirentur

PERFECT.

I may have been heard, or I have been heard.

audītus sim 1 audītus sīs audītus sit

audīt**ī sīmus** audītī sītis audītī sint

PLUPERFECT.

I should have been heard, he would have been heard.

audītus essem 1 audītus essēs audītus esset

audītī essēmus audītī essētis audītī essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. audire, be thou heard; | audimini, be ye heard.

Fut. auditor, thou shalt be heard, audītor, he shall be heard;

audiuntor, they shall be heard.

INFINITIVE

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. audīrī, to be heard. Perf. audītus esse, to have been | Perf. audītus, heard. heard.

Fut. auditum Iri, to be about to be heard.

Ger. audiendus, to be heard, deserving to be heard.

¹ See 206, foot-notes.

COMPARATIVE NIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

213. ACTIVE VOICE

PRESENT SYSTEM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

		D			
am -ŏ	~	PRESEN			
am -õ	-as,	-at;	-āmus,	-ātis,	-ant.
mon -eŏ,	-ēs,	-et;	-ēmus,	-ētis,	-ent.
reg -ŏ	-is,	-it;	-imus,	-itis,	-unt.
aud -iŏ,	-īs,	-it;	-īmus,	-ī tis ,	-iunt.
		IMPERFE	CT.		
am -ābam,	-ābās,	-ābat;	-ābāmus,	-ābātis,	-ābant.
mon -ēbam,	-ēbās,	-ēbat;	-ēbāmus,	-ēbātis,	-ēbant.
reg -ēbam,	-ēbās,	-ēbat ;	-ēbāmus,	-ēbātis,	-ēbant.
aud -iēbam,	-iēbās,	-iēbat;	-iēbāmus,	-iēbātis,	-iēbant.
	·	Futur	r.	,	
am -ābŏ,	-ābis,	-ābit;	-ābimus,	-ābitis,	-ābunt.
mon -ēbŏ,	-ēbis,	-ēbit;	-ēbimus,	-ēbitis,	-ābunt.
reg -am,	-ēs,	-et;	-ēmus,	-ētis,	-ent.
aud -iam,	-iēs,	-iet;	-iēmus,	-iētis,	-ient.
auu -lam,	-165,	-100,	-iemus,	-ieus,	-ient.
		SUBJUNC'	TIVE.		
		PRESEN	Tr.		
am -em,	-ēs,	-et;	-ēmus,	-ētis,	-ent.
mon -eam,	-eās,	-eat;	-eāmus,	-eātis,	-eant.
reg -am,	-ās,	-at;	-āmus,	-ātis,	-ant.
aud -iam,	-iās,	-iat;	-iāmus,	-iātis,	-iant.
,	,	IMPERFE	,	,	
	3.450			= = 41 =	7 mam 4
am -ārem,	-ārēs,	-āret;	-ārēmus,	-ārētis,	-ārent.
mon -ērem,	-ērēs,	-ēret;	-ērēmus,	-ērētis,	-ērent.
reg -erem,	-erēs,	-eret;	-erēmus,	-erētis,	-erent.
aud -īrem,	-īrēs,	-īret;	-īrēmus,	-īrētis,	-Irent.
		IMPERAT	IVE.		
	PRESENT.			UTURE.	
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGU			TRAI.
am -ā,	-āte;	-ātŏ,	-ātŏ;	-ātōte,	-antō.
mon -ē,	-ēte;	-ētŏ,	-ētŏ;	-ētōte,	-entŏ.
reg -e,	-ite;	-itŏ,	-itŏ;	-itōte,	-untō.
aud -ī,	-īte;	-ītŏ,	-ītŏ;	-ītōte,	-iuntŏ.
Pres. Infi	NITIVE.	Pres	. PARTICIPL	E.	GERUND.
am	-āre;		-āns;		-andī.
mon	-ēre;		-ēns;		-endī.
reg	-ere;		-ēns;		-endī.
aud	-īre;		-iēns;		-iendī.
Note.—Verbs					

¹ For the Present System, see 222, I.

GERUNDIVE. -andus.

-endus.

-endus.

-iendus.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

214. PASSIVE VOICE.

PRESENT SYSTEM.

INDICATIVE MOOD. PRESENT.

am	-or,	-āris	or āre,1	-ātur;	-āmur,	-āminī,	-antur.	
mon	-eor,	-ēris	<i>or</i> ēre,	-ētur ;	-ēmur,	-ēminī,	-entur.	
reg	-or,	-eris	or ere,	-itur ;	-imur,	-iminī,	-untur.	
aud	-ior,	-īris	or īre,	-ītur ;	-īmur,	-īminī,	-iuntur.	
				IMPERFECT.		~		
am	-ābar,	-ābāris	or ābāre,	-ābātur ;	-ābāmur,	-ābāminī,	-ābantur.	
mon	-ēbar,		or ēbāre,	-ēbātur;	-ēbāmur,	-ēbāminī,		
reg	-ēbar,		or ēbāre,	-ēbātur;	-ēbāmur,	-ēbāminī,		
aud	-iēbar,	-iēbāris	or iebare,	-iēbātur;	-iēbāmur,	-iēbāminī,	-iēbantur.	
	_			FUTURE.				
am	-ābor,	āhoris	or abere,	-ābitur;	-ābimur,	-ābiminī,	-ābuntur.	
mon	-ēbor,	-ēberis	or ebere,	-ēbitur;	-ēbimur,	-ēbiminī,	-ēbuntur.	
reg	-ar,	-ēris	or ere.	-ētur;	-ēmur,	-ēminī,	-entur.	
aud	-iar,	-iēris	or iere,	-iētur;	-iēmur,	-iēminī,	-ientur.	
auu	-141,	-10115	,	,	•	-10111111,	-ichtui.	
			Su	BJUNCTIV	E.			
				PRESENT.				
am	-er,	-ēris	or ēre,	-ētur ;	-ēmur,	-ēminī,	-entur.	
mon	-ear,	-eāris	or eare,	-eātur;	-eāmur,	-eāminī,	-eantur	
reg	-ar,	-āris	or are,	-ātur;	-āmur,	-āminī,	-antur.	
aud	-iar,	-iāris	or iāre,	-iātur ;	-iāmur,	-iāminī,	-iantur.	
				IMPERFECT.				
am	-ārer,	-ārēris	or ārēre,	-ārētur;	-ārēmur,	-ārēminī,	-ārentur.	
mon	-ērer,	-ērēris	or ērēre,	-ērētur;	-ērēmur,	-ērēminī,	-ērentur.	
reg	-erer,	-erēris	or erēre,	-erētur;	-erēmur,	-erēminī,	-erentur.	
aud	-īrer,	-īrēris	or īrēre,	-īrētur;	-īrēmur,	-īrēminī,	-īrentur.	
•			т.	TOTAL ARTES				
	PRESE	NT.	_ IN	IPERATIVI	E. Fu	TURE.		
SINGUI	LAR.	PLURAL		SINGU		PLUI		
am	-āre,	-āminī	,	-ātor,	-ātor;		-antor.	
mon	-ēre,	ēminī		-ētor,	-ētor;		-entor.	
reg	-ere,	-iminī;		-itor,	-itor;		-untor.	
aud	-īre,	-Iminī;		-ītor,	-ītor;		-iuntor.	

1 In these and the following endings re takes the place of ris: āris or āre, ābāris or
ābāre. Re is formed from ris by dropping final s and then changing final i to e; see
86, 5; 24, 1, note; also 237.

PRES. INFINITIVE.

-ārī;

-ērī;

-īrī;

-ī;

am

mon

reg

aud

amāt monit

rēct audīt -ūrus esse.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

215. ACTIVE VOICE.

PERFECT SYSTEM.1

INDICATIVE MOOD.

amāv)			Perf	ECT.		
monu rēx audīv						-ērunt, ēre.\$
amāv)			PLUPER	RFECT.		
monu rēx audīv	eram,	-erās,	-erat;	erāmus,	-erātis,	-erant.
amāv)			FUTURE I	Perfect.		
monu rēx audīv	erŏ,	-eris,	-erit;	Perfect.	-erĭtis,	-erint.
			SUBJUN	CTIVE		
amāv)			Perf	ECT.		
monu rēx audīv	erim,	-erĭs,	-erit;	ест. -erĭmus,	-erĭtis,	-erint.
		3	-			
amāv)			PLUPER	RFECT.		
rēx audīv	issem,	-issēs,	-isset;	rfect. -issēmus,	-issētis,	-issent.
amāv monu rēx		Pi	ERFECT L	NFINITIVE.		
rēx	-isse.					
audīv J		su	PINE S	SYSTEM.	1	
Fur.	Infinit	IVE.	FUT. PAR	TICIPLE.	Sui	PINE.

-ūrus.

-um, -ū.

¹ For the Perfect System, see 222, II.; for the Supine System, 222, III.

² From the comparative view presented in 213-216, it will be seen that the four conjugations differ from each other only in the formation of the Principal Parts and in the endings of the Present System. See also 201, foot-note.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

216. PASSIVE VOICE.

SUPINE SYSTEM.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

amāt monit rēct -us sum, -us es, -us est; -ī¹ sumus, -ī estis, -ī sunt.

amāt monit rēct -us eram, -us erās, -us erat; -ī erāmus, -ī erātis, -ī erant.

amāt			FECT.			
monit rēct audīt	-us erŏ,	-us eris,	-us erit;	-ī erimus,	-ī eritis,	-ī erunt.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

amāt)						
monit rect audit	s sim,	·us sīs,	-us sit;	-ī sīmus,	-ī sītis,	-ī sint.

amāt '	1		PLUPERFE			
monit rēct	-us essem,	-us essēs,	-us esset;	-ī essēmus,	-ī essētis,	-ī essent.

	Infinit	IVE.
amāt }	Perfect.	FUTURE.
monit rēct	Perfectus esse.	-um īrī.
audīt		

PERFECT PARTICIPLE.

amāt monit rēct audīt

¹ In the plural, -us becomes -ī: amāt-ī sumus, etc.

- 217. A few verbs of the Third Conjugation form the Present Indicative in iŏ, ior, like verbs of the Fourth Conjugation. They are inflected with the endings of the Fourth wherever those endings have two successive vowels. These verbs are—
- 1. Capiō, to take; cupiō, to desire; faciō, to make; fodiō, to dig; fugiō, to flee; jaciō, to throw; pariō, to bear; quatiō, to shake; rapiō, to seize; sapiō, to be wise, with their compounds.

2. The compounds of the obsolete verbs, lació, to entice, and speció, to

look; alliciŏ, ēliciŏ, illiciŏ, pelliciŏ, etc.; aspiciŏ, conspiciŏ, etc.

- 8. The Deponent Verbs: gradior, to go; morior, to die; patior, to suffer; see 231.

218. ACTIVE VOICE.—Capiŏ, I take.

VERB STEM, cap; PRESENT STEM, cape.2

	PRINCIP	AL PARTS.	
Pres. Ind. capiŏ,	Pres. Inf. capere,	Perf. Ind. cēpī,	Supine. captum.
,	INDICATI	VE MOOD.	
singul capiŏ, capis, c	AR.	TENSE. PL	URAL.
capito, capito, c	• '	ERFECT.	ore, copromi
capiēbam, -iēk			-iēbātis, -iēbant.
	Fu	TURE.	•
capiam, -iēs, -	iet;	capiēmus, -iē	tis, -ient.
	PE	RFECT.	
'cēpī, -īstī, -it;		cēpimus, -īsti	is, -ērunt, or ēre.
•	PLUP	ERFECT.	
cēperam, -erās	s, -erat;	cēperāmus, -	erātis, -erant.
	FUTURE	Perfect.	
cēperŏ, -erīs, -	erit;	cēperīmus, -e	erttis, -erint.
	Subju	NCTIVE.	
	PR	ESENT.	
capiam, -iās, -	iat;	capiāmus, -iā	tis, -iant.
	Імрі	ERFECT.	
caperem, -erēs	s, -eret;	caperēmus, -	erētis, -e r ent.

PERFECT.

PLUPERFECT.

cēperim, -erīs, -erit;

cēpissem, -issēs, -isset;

ceperimus, -eritis, -erint.

cēpissēmus, -issētis, -issent.

¹ Specio occurs, but is exceedingly rare.

² With variable vowel—e, i: cape, capi.

IMPERATIVE.

 SINGULAR.
 PLURAL.

 Pres. cape;
 capite.

 Fut. capitŏ, capitōte, capitōte;
 capitote, capiuntŏ.

Infinitive. Participle.

Pres. capiens.

Perf. cēpisse.
Fut. captūrus esse.
Fut. captūrus.

GERUND. SUPINE.

Gen. capiendī,

Dat. capiendo,

Acc. capiendum, Acc. captum, Abl. capiendo. Abl. captū.

219. PASSIVE VOICE.—Capior, I am taken.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. capior, capi, captus sum.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT TENSE.

SINGULAR. PLURAL.

capior, caperis, capitur; | capimur, capiminī, capiuntur.

Imperfect.

capiēbar, -iēbāris, -iēbātur; | capiēbāmur, -iēbāminī, -iēbantur.

FUTURE.

capiar, -iēris, -iētur; | capiemur, -iēminī, -ientur.

Perfect.

captus sum, es, est; | captī sumus, estis, sunt.

PLUPERFECT.

captus eram, erās, erat; | captī erāmus, erātis, erant.

FUTURE PERFECT.

captus ero, eris, erit; | captī erimus, eritis, erunt.

PRESENT. SINGULAR. PLURAL. capiar, -iāris, -iātur; capiāmur, -iāminī, -iantur. IMPERFECT. caperer, -erēris, -erētur; caperēmur, -erēminī, -erentur. PERFECT. captī sīmus, sītis, sint. captus sim, sīs, sit; PLUPERFECT. captus essem, esses, esset; captī essēmus, essētis, essent. IMPERATIVE.

Pres. capere; Fut. capitor,

capitor; Infinitive.

capiminī. capiuntor.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. capī.

Perf. captus esse. Fut. captum īrī.

Perf. captus. Fut. capiendus.

audič, audīre, audīvī, audītum, to hear.

VERBAL INFLECTIONS.

220. The PRINCIPAL PARTS are formed in the four conjugations with the following endings, including the characteristic vowels, ā, ē, e, ī:

CONJ. I. ŏ, āre, āvī, ātum, amŏ, amāre, amāvī, amātum, to love. eŏ. Conj. II. In a few verbs: ēre. ēvī. ētum, dēleŏ. dēlēre, dēlēvī, dēlētum, to destroy. In most verbs: еŏ, ēre, uī, itum, moneŏ, monēre, monuī, monitum, to advise. Conj. III. In consonant stems: ŏ, ere, sī, tum, carpo, carpere, carpsi, carptum, to pluck. In vowel stems: ŏ, tum, ere. ī, acutum, to sharpen. acuŏ. acuere, acuī, īre, CONJ. IV. iŏ, īvī, ītum,

221. Compounds of verbs with dissyllabic Supines generally change the stem-vowel in forming the principal parts:

I. When the Present of the compound has i for e of the simple verb:

1. The Perfect and Supine generally resume the e:1

regő, regere, rēxī, rēctum, to rule. dī-rigő, dīrigere, dīrēxī, dīrēctum, to direct.

2. But sometimes only the Supine resumes the e:1

teneŏ, tenēre, tenuī, tentum, to hold. dē-tineŏ, dētinēre, dētinuī, dētentum, to detain.

II. When the Present of the compound has i for a of the simple verb:

1. The Perfect generally resumes the vowel of the simple perfect, and the Supine takes e, 1 sometimes a:

capiŏ, capere, cēpī, captum, to take. ac-cipiŏ, accipere, accēpī, acceptum, to accept.

2. But sometimes the Perfect retains i and the Supine takes e: 1

rapiŏ, rapere, rapuī, raptum, to seize. dī-ripiŏ, dīripere, dIripuī, dīreptum, to tear asunder.

Note.—For Reduplication in compounds, see 255, I., 4; other peculiarities of compounds will be noticed under the separate conjugations.

222. All the forms of any regular verb arrange themselves in three distinct groups or systems:

I. The Present System, with the Present Infinitive as its basis, comprises—

- 1. The Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative—Active and Passive.
- 2. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive-Active and Passive.
- 3. The Imperative-Active and Passive.
- 4. The Present Infinitive-Active and Passive.
- 5. The Present Active Participle.
- 6. The Gerund and the Gerundive.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the *Present Stem*, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping the ending re: amāre, present stem AMĀ; monēre, MONĒ; regere, REGE; audīre, AUDĪ.

II. The Perfect System, with the Perfect Indicative Active as its basis, comprises in the Active Voice—

- 1. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative.
- 2. The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.
- 3. The Perfect Infinitive.

NOTE.—These parts are all formed from the *Perfect Stem*, found in the Perfect Indicative Active, by dropping I: amāvī, perfect stem Amāv; monuī, Monu.

III. The Supine System, with the Supine as its basis, comprises—

¹ The favorite vowel before x, or two or more consonants; see 24, 1.

- 1. The Supines in um and ū, the former of which with īrī forms the Future Infinitive Passive.
- 2. The Future Active and Perfect Passive Participles, the former of which with esse forms the Future Active Infinitive, and the latter of which with the proper parts of the auxiliary sum forms in the Passive those tenses which in the Active belong to the Perfect System.

Note.—These parts are all formed from the Supine Stem, found in the Supine by dropping um: amatum, supine stem AMAT; monitum, MONIT.

SYNOPSIS OF CONJUGATION

FIRST CONJUGATION.

223. ACTIVE VOICE.—Amő, I love.

	I. I KIN	CIPAL LARIS	•
amŏ,	amāre,	amāvī,	amātum

2. Present System; Stem, amā.

INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE. IMPER. INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE. Pres. amo amem amā amāre amāns Imp, amābam amārem amātŏ Fut. amābo Gerund, amandī, dō, etc.

3. Perfect System; Stem, amav.

Perf. amāvī amäverim amāvisse Plup, amāveram amāvissem F. P. amāvero

4. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, amāt.

Fut. amātūrus esse amātūrus Supine, amātum, amātū.

224. PASSIVE VOICE.—Amor, I am loved.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

amātus sum. amor. amārī,

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, amā.

Pres. amor amārī amer amāre Imp. amābar amärer Fut. amabor amātor

Gerundive, amandus,

3. Supine System; Stem, amāt.

		,,		
INDICATIVE. Perf. amātus sum Plup. amātus eram	amātus sim amātus essem	IMPER.	infinitive. amātus esse	amātus
F. P. amātus erŏ Fut.		-	amātum īrī	
	SECOND CO	NJUGAT	ION.	
225. ACTIVE	VOICE.—Moneŏ,	I advise.		
	1. Princia	PAL PARTS.		
moneŏ,	monēre,	monuī,	monitu	ım.
	2. Present Syst	ем; Ѕтем,	monē.	
Pres. moneŏ Imp. monēbam Fut. monēbŏ	moneam monērem	monē monētŏ	monēre	monēns
_	Gerund, mon		te.	
	3. Perfect Syst	ем; Ѕтем,	monu.	
Perf. monuī Plup. monueram F. P. monuerŏ	monuerim monuissem		monuisse	
	4. SUPINE SYSTE	ем; Ѕтем, л	nonit.	
Fut.	Supine, moni		monitūrus esse ū.	monitūrus

226. PASSIVE VOICE.—Moneor, I am advised.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

moneor,

monērī,

monitus sum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, monē.

Pres.	moneor
	monēbar
Fut.	monēbor

monear	monēre	monērī	
monērer			
	monētor		
Ganundine	monandue		

Gerundive, monendus.

3. Supine System; Stem, monit.

Perf. monitus sum		monitus esse	monitus
Plup, monitus eram F. P. monitus erŏ	monitus essem		
Fut.		monitum īrī	

THIRD CONJUGATION.

227. ACTIVE VOICE.—Rego, I rule.

4	PRINCIPAL	D

regŏ, regere, rēxī, rēctum.

2. PRESENT SYSTEM; STEM, rege.

3. PERFECT SYSTEM; STEM, rex.

 Perf. rëxi
 rëxerim
 rëxisse

 Plup. rëxeram
 rëxissem

 F. P. rëxero
 rëxissem

4. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, rect.

Fut. | | | rēctūrus esse | rēctūrus Supine, rēctum, rēctū.

228. PASSIVE VOICE.—Regor, I am ruled.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

regor, regī, rēctus sum.

2. Present System; Stem, rege.

 Pres. regor
 regar
 regere
 regī

 Imp. regēbar
 regerer
 regitor

 Fut. regar
 Gerundive, regendus.

3. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, rēct.

 $egin{array}{c|ccccc} Perf. \ ar{ ext{rectus sum}} & ar{ ext{rectus sim}} & ar{ ext{rectus esse}} & ar{ ext{rectus$

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

229. ACTIVE VOICE	CE.—Audiō, I	hear.
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aı	ıdiŏ,	audīre,	audīvī,	audītu	m.
	2.	PRESENT SYS	TEM; STEM,	audī.	
Pres. audic Imp. audic Fut. audic	ēbam —	subjunctive. audiam audīrem	audī audītŏ	audīre	PARTICIPLE, audiëns
		Gerund, aud	iendī, dō, e	tc.	
	3.	PERFECT SYST	em; Stem,	audīv.	
Perf. audī Plup. audī F. P. audī	veram	audīverim audīvissem		audīvisse	
	4.	SUPINE SYST	em; Stem,	audīt.	
Fut.	1		1	audītūrus esse	audītūrus
		Supine, aud	ītum, audīti	ī.	
230. 1	PASSIVE V	OICE.—Audio	or, I am he	eard.	
		1. Princi	PAL PARTS		
	audior,	audīrī	i ,	audītus sum.	
	2.	PRESENT SYS	тем; Ѕтем,	audī.	
Pres. audic Imp. audic Fut. audic	ēbar	audiar audīrer	audīre audītor audiendus	audīrī	
		Geranative	, addiendus		
	3.	SUPINE SYSTE	м; Ѕтем, аг	ıdīt.	
Perf. audī Plup. audī F. P. audī	tus eram a	udītus sim udītus essem		audītus esse	audītus
Fut.				audītum īrī	1

DEPONENT VERBS.

- 231. Deponent Verbs have in general the forms of the Passive Voice with the signification of the Active. But—
- They have also in the Active, the future infinitive, the participles, gerund, and supine.
- 2. The gerundive generally has the passive signification; sometimes also the perfect participle: hortandus, to be exhorted; expertus, tried.
- 3. The Future Infinitive of the Passive form is rare, as the Active form is generally used.

Note.—The synopsis of a single example will sufficiently illustrate the peculiarities of Deponent Verbs.

232. Hortor, I exhort.

1. PRINCIPAL PARTS.

hortor, hortārī, hortātus sum.

2. Present System; Stem, hortā.

INI	DICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	IMPER.	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLE.
Pres. h	ortor 1	horter	hortāre	hortārī	hortāns
Imp. h	ortābar	hortārer			
Fut. h	ortābor		hortator		I
	Gerund	l. hortandī.	Gerundi	ve. hortandus.	

3. SUPINE SYSTEM; STEM, hortat.

Perf. hortātus sum Plup. hortātus eram	hortātus sim hortātus essem		hortātus esse	hortātus
F. P. hortātus erŏ $Fut.$			hortātūrus esse	hortātūrus
Supine, hortātum, hortātū.				

Note.—For the Principal Parts of Deponent Verbs in the other conjugations, see 268, 283, and 288. From these Principal Parts the pupil, by the aid of the paradigms already learned, will be able to inflect any Deponent Verb.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

233. The ACTIVE PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION, formed by combining the Future Active Participle with *sum*, denotes an intended or future action:

¹ The tenses are inflected regularly through the persons and numbers: hortor, hortāris, hortātur, hortāmur, hortāminī, hortantur. All the forms in this synopsis have the active meaning, I eahort, I was exhorting, etc., except the Gerundive, which has the passive force, deserving to be exhorted, to be exhorted. The Gerundive, as it is passive in meaning, cannot be used in intransitive Deponent Verbs, except in an impersonal sense; see 301, 1.

Amātūrus sum, I am about to love.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.	INFINITIVE.
Pres. amātūrus sum 1	amātūrus sim	amātūrus esse
Imp. amātūrus eram	amātūrus essem	
Fut. amātūrus erŏ		
Perf. amātūrus fuī	amātūrus fuerim	amātūrus fuisse
Plup. amātūrus fueram	amātūrus fuissem	
F P amatūrus fuarči		

234. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation, formed by combining the Gerundive with *sum*, denotes *necessity* or *duty*.

Amandus sum, I must be loved.2

Pres.	amandus sum	amandus sim	amandus esse
Imp.	amandus eram	amandus essem	
Fut.	amandus erŏ	_	
Perf.	amandus fuī	amandus fuerim	amandus fuisse
Plup.	amandus fueram	amandus fuissem	
F P	amandus fuerŏ		

Note.—The Periphrastic Conjugation, in the widest sense of the term, includes all forms compounded of participles with sum; but as the Pres. Part. with sum is equivalent to the Pres. Ind. $(am\bar{a}ns\ est=amat)$, and is accordingly seldom used, and as the Porf. Part. with sum is, in the strictest sense, an integral part of the regular conjugation, the term Periphrastic is generally limited to the two conjugations above given.

PECULIARITIES IN CONJUGATION.

235. Perfects in **āvī**, **ēvī**, **īvī**, and the tenses derived from them, sometimes drop **v** and suffer contraction before **s** and **r**, and sometimes before **t**. Thus—

Ā with the following vowel becomes ā: amāvīstī (amaīstī), amāstī; amāvēram (amaeram), amāram; amāvisse (amaisse), amāsse; amāvit (amait), amāt.

E with the following vowel becomes **ē**: nēvī (to spin), nēvīstī (neīsti), nēstī; nēvērunt (neērunt), nērunt.

Ī.ī and I.i become ī: audīvīstī (audiīstī), audīstī; audīvissem (audiissem), audīssem; audīvit (audiit), audīt.

1. Perfects in ivi sometimes drop v in any of their forms, but generally without contraction, except before s: audivi, audii, audiit, audieram; audi-visti, audiisti or audisti.

¹ The periphrastic forms are inflected regularly through the persons and numbers: amātūrus sum, es, est. The Fut. Perf. is exceedingly rare.

² Or, I deserve (ought) to be loved.

- Perfects in ōvī.—The perfects of noseō, to know, and moveō, to move, sometimes drop v and suffer contraction before r and s: novīstī, nostī.
- 3. Perfects in sī and xī sometimes drop īs, is, or sīs: scrīpsīstī, scrīpstī; dīxisse, dīxe; accēssīstis, accēstis.
- 236. The ending **ere** for **erunt** in the Perfect is common in Livy and the poets, but rare in Cicero and Caesar.

Note.—The form in ere does not drop v. In poetry erunt occurs.

- 237. Re for ris in the ending of the second Person of the Passive is rare in the Present Indicative, but common in the other tenses.
- 238. Dīo, dūc, fac, and fer, for dīce, dūce, face, and fere, are the Imperatives of dīcō, dūcō, faciō, and ferō, to say, lead, make, and bear.

Note 1.—Dice, duce, and face occur in poetry.

- Note 2.—Compounds follow the simple verbs, except those of $faci\check{o}$, which change a into i: $c\~onfice$.
- 239. Undus and undi for endus and endi occur as the endings of the Gerundive and Gerund of Conj. III. and IV., especially after i: faciundus, from facio, to make; dicundus, from dico, to say.
- 240. Ancient and Rare Forms.—Various other forms, belonging in the main to the earlier Latin, occur in the poets, even of the classical period, and occasionally also in prose, to impart to the style an air of antiquity or solemnity. Thus forms in—
- 1. Ibam for iēbam, in the Imperfect Ind. of Conj. IV.: scībam for sciēbam. See Imperfect of eĕ, to go, 295.
- 2. **ībo**, **ībor**, for iam, iar, in the Future of Conj. IV.: servībŏ for serviam; opperībor for opperiar. See Future of eŏ, 295.
- 3. im for am or em, in the Pres. Subj.: edim, edīs, etc., for edam, edās, etc.; duim (from duŏ, for dō), for dem.—In sim, velim, nōlim, mālim (201 and 293), im is the common ending.
- 4. āssŏ, ēssŏ, and sŏ, in the Future Perfect, and āssim, ēssim, and sim, in the Perfect Subjunctive of Conj. I., II., III.: faxŏ (facsŏ) for fēcerŏ¹ (from faciŏ); faxim for fēcerim¹; ausim for ausus sim (for auserim, from audeŏ). Rare examples are: levāssŏ for levāverŏ; prohibēssŏ for prohibuerŏ; jūssŏ for jūsserŏ; capsŏ for cēperŏ; axŏ for ēgerŏ; occīsit for occīderit; taxīs for tetigerĭs.
- 5. to and mino for tor, the former in both numbers, the latter in the singular, of the Future Imperative, Passive and Deponent: arbitrato, arbitramino for arbitrator; ūtunto for ūtuntor.
- 6. ier for ī in the Present Passive Infinitive: amārier for amārī; vidērier for vidērī.

¹ Remember that r in $er\~o$ and erim was originally s; see 31, 1; 204, foot-note 2.

ANALYSIS OF VERBAL ENDINGS.

241. The endings which are appended to the stems in the formation of the various parts of the finite verb contain three distinct elements:

1. The Tense-Sign: ba in amā-ba-m, regē-bā-s.

2. The Mood-Vowel: ā in mone-ā-s, reg-ā-s.

3. The Personal Ending: s in mone-ā-s, reg-ā-s.

I. TENSE-SIGNS.

242. The Present is without any tense-sign: amā-s. So also the Future in Conjugations III. and IV.

243. In the other tense-forms of all regular verbs, the tense-sign is found in the auxiliary with which these forms are all compounded:

Amā-bam,2 amāv-eram; amā-bŏ, amāv-erŏ; monē-bam, monu-eram.

II. Mood-Signs.

244. The Indicative has no special sign to mark the Mood.

245. The Subjunctive has a long vowel—ā, ē,³ or ī⁴—before the Personal Endings:

Mone-ā-mus, mone-ā-tis, am-ē-mus, am-ē-tis, s-ī-mus, s-ī-tis.

Note.—This vowel is shortened before final m and t, and generally in the Perfect before s, mus, and tis. moneam, amet, sit, fueris, amaverimus, amaveritis.

¹ This Future is in form a Present Subjunctive, though it has assumed in full the force of the Future Indicative; see foot-note 4 below.

² Bam and eram are both auxiliary verbs in the Imperfect, the former from the stem bhu, the old form of fu in fu-i, and the latter from the stem es; the former added to the Present stem forms the Imperfect, the latter added to the Perfect stem forms the Pluperfect. Bo and ero are Future forms, the former from bhu, the latter from es; the former added to the Present stem forms the Future in Conjugations I. and II., the latter added to the Perfect stem forms the Future Perfect. In the Subjunctive the tense-forms, except the Present, are compounded with Subjunctive tense-forms from es; thus, erem in regerem is for esem, the old form of essem; erim in rex-erim is for esim = sim, and issem in rex-issem is for essem; thus the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive of sum added to the Perfect stem form the Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.

³ This \bar{e} comes from $a-\bar{i}$, of which the \bar{i} alone is the true Mood-Sign.

4 The Latin Subjunctive contains the forms of two distinct Moods—the Subjunctive with the sign ā, and the Optative with the sign ī, sometimes contained in ē for a-ī. Thus: Subjunctive, mone-ā-mus, audi-ā-tis; Optative, s-ī-mus, recer-ī-tis, am-ē-mus for ama-ī-mus, recer-ī-tis for regera-ī-s. The Subjunctive and Optative forms, originally distinct, have in the Latin been blended into one Mood, called the Subjunctive, and are used without any difference of meaning. Thus the Mood in mone-ā-mus, a Subjunctive form, has precisely the same force as in am-ē-mus, an Optative form. The First Person Singular of Futures in am—regam, audiam, etc.—is in form a Subjunctive, while the other Persons, regēs, et, etc., audiēs, et, etc., are in form Optatives.

246. The Imperative is distinguished by its Personal Endings; see 247, 3.

III. PERSONAL ENDINGS.

247. The Personal Endings are formed from ancient pronominal stems, and have, accordingly, the force of pronouns in English. They are as follows:

	PERSON.	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.	MEANING.
Singular.1	First	\mathbf{m}	${f r}$	I
	Second	s	ris	thou, you
	Third	t	tur	he, she, it
$Plural.^{2}$	First	mus	mur	we
	Second	tis	minī 3	you
	Third	nt	ntur	they
		EXAMPLE	s.	
amāba-m	amāl	na-r	reg	rego-r
amābā-s	amāl	oā-ris	regi-s	rege-ris
amāba-t	amāl	oā-tur	regi-t	regi-tur
amābā-mus	amāl	oā-mur	regi-mus	regi-mur
amābā-tis	amāl	oā-minī	regi-tis	regi-minī
amāba-nt	amāl	oa-ntur	regu-nt	regu-ntur

- 1. OMITTED.—In the Present,⁴ Perfect, and Future Perfect Ind. of all the conjugations, and in the Future Ind. of Conjugations I. and II., the ending m does not appear. In these forms the First Person ends in ŏ: 5 amō, amābō, amāverō; except in the Perfect, where it ends in ō: 6 amāvō.
- 2. The endings of the Perfect Active are peculiar. They are the same as in $fu\bar{\imath}$:

¹ In the Singular these Personal Endings contain each—(1) in the Active Voice one pronominal stem, m, I; s, thou, you; t, he; and (2) in the Passive two such stems, one denoting the Person, and the other the Passive Voice: thus, in the ending tur, t (tū) denotes the person, and r, the voice. R of the first person stands for m-r.

² In the Plural the Endings contain each—(1) in the Active two pronominal stems: $mu \cdot s = m$ (mu) and s, I and you, i. e., we; tis = t (the original form for s, thou, as seen in $t\bar{u}$, thou) and s, = s and s, thou and thou, i. e., you; nt = n and t, he and he, i. e., they; and (2) in the Passive three such stems, the third denoting the Passive Voice: thus in ntur, nt (ntu) denotes the person and number, and r, the voice.

³ $Min\bar{\imath}$ was not originally a Personal Ending, but the Plural of a Passive Participle, not otherwise used in Latin, but seen in the Greek ($\mu\epsilon\nu\epsilon\iota$). $Am\bar{a}min\bar{\imath}$, originally $am\bar{a}min\bar{\imath}$ estis, means you are loved, as $am\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}$ estis means you have been loved.

⁴ Except in sum, I am, and inquam, I say.

⁵ The origin of this final \check{o} is uncertain. Curtius regards it as simply the *thematic* vowel, but Meyer recognizes in it a *suffix* combined with the *thematic* vowel; see Curtius, Verbum, I., pp. 199, 200; Meyer, p. 349.

⁶ Probably a part of the stem; but see Curtius, Verbum, II., p. 173; Papillon, pp. 194-196; also two papers by the author, on the Formation of the Tenses for Completed Action in the Latin Finite Verb; Transactions of the Am. Phil. Assoc., 1874 and 1875.

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
First Pers.	fu-ī¹	fu-i-mus
Second	fu-īs-tī	fu-īs-tis
Third	fu-i-t	fu-ëru-nt or ëre

3. The Imperative Mood has the following Personal Endings:

	ACTI	VE.	PASS	IVE.
Pres. Second Pers.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL. te	Singular, re	Plural. minī
Fut. Second	tŏ	tōte	tor	
Third	tŏ	${f nt}reve{f o}$	tor	ntor

248. Infinitives, Participles, Gerunds, and Supines are formed with the following endings:

	ACTIVE.	PASSIVE.
Infinitive Present	re (ere)	rī (erī), ī
Perfect	isse	us esse
Future	ūrus esse	um īrī
Participle Present	ns	
Future	ūrus -	都 3
Perfect		us
Gerundive		ndus
Gerund	ndī	
Supine	um, ū	,

FORMATION OF STEMS.

249. The three Special Stems are all formed from the Verb Stem.

I. PRESENT STEM.

250. The Present Stem, found in the Present Infinitive Active by dropping re, is generally the same as the Verb Stem in the First and in the Fourth Conjugations, and sometimes in the Second. Thus, $am\bar{a}$, $d\bar{e}l\bar{e}$, and $aud\bar{i}$ are both Present Stems and Verb Stems.

¹ M is omitted in the first person, and $t\bar{t}$, an ancient form of $s\bar{t}$, s, is used in the second. Otherwise the endings themselves are regular, but in the second person $t\bar{t}$ and $t\bar{t}s$ are preceded by $\bar{t}s$, and $\bar{t}vunt$ in $fu-\bar{t}vunt$ is for esunt, the full form for sunt. Thus $fu-\bar{t}vunt$ is a compound of fu and esunt for sunt. Fu- $\bar{t}stis$, in like manner, may be a compound of fu and $t\bar{s}tis$ for estis, and $fu-\bar{t}sti$, of fu and $t\bar{s}tis$ for esti s.

² In the Present the ending is dropped in the Sing. Act., and the endings te and re are shortened from tis and ris of the Indicative by dropping s and changing final i into e; see 24, 1, note. In the Future, $t\tilde{o}$ of the second person corresponds to $t\tilde{i}$ of the Perfect Ind.; $t\tilde{o}$ and $nt\tilde{o}$ of the third person to t and nt. Tor and nt or t of t of

³ The final vowels are generally explained as derived from aja, which became, in Conj. I., ajo, shortened to \check{o} in $am \check{-o}$, and to \check{a} in the other forms, as $am \check{-a} - mus$; in

- 251. The Present Stem, when not the same as the Verb Stem, is formed from it by one of the following methods:
 - 1. By adding a short vowel, called the Thematic vowel:1

```
regő; Stem, reg; Present Stem, rege; to rule.
canő; "can; cane; to sing.
```

2. By adding a Thematic vowel preceded by n, sc, or t:

```
sino;
            Stem, si;
                                    Present Stem, sine;
                                                                     to permit.
spernő;
                  sper, sprē;
                                                   sperne;
                                                                     to spurn.
              66
                                           "
temno;
                  tem;
                                                   temne;
                                                                     to despise.
                                           ..
              "
veterāsco;
                  veterā;
                                                   veterăsce:
                                                                     to grow old.
              "
                                           "
cresco;
                  crē;
                                                   crēsce;
                                                                     to increase.
              66
                                           "
plecto:
                  plec;
                                                                     to braid.
                                                   plecte;
```

3. By adding a Thematic vowel preceded by i or j:

```
capiŏ; Stem, cap; Present Stem, cap-je, cape; 2 to take.
pellŏ; "pel; "pel-je, pelle; 2 to drive.
currŏ; "cur; "cur-je, curre; 2 to run.
```

4. By adding a *Thematic vowel* and inserting **n**—changed to **m** before a labial, **b** or **p**; see 33, 3:

```
frangő; Stem, frag; Present Stem, frange; to break.
fundő; "fud; "funde; to pour.
rumpő; "rup; "rumpe; to burst.
```

5. By adding ā, ē, or ī:

```
juvč; Stem, juv; Present Stem, juvā; to assist. videč; "vid; to see. haurič; "haur for haus; "haurī; to draw.
```

6. By reduplicating the stem:

```
sistő; Stem, sta; Present Stem, sista, siste; to place. serő; "sa; sisa, sise, sere; to sow.
```

Note.—Sometimes two of these methods are united in the same stem:

```
gīgnŏ; Stem, gen; Present Stem, gigene, gīgne; 5 to beget.
nanciscor; nac; nancisco; 5 to obtain.
```

Conj. II., ejo, shortened to eŏ in dēl-eŏ, and to ē in dēl-ē-mus; and in Conj. IV., ejo, shortened to iŏ in aud-iŏ, to iu in aud-iu-nt, and to ī in aud-ī-mus; see 335, foot-note.

- ¹ This *Thematic vowel*, originally a, is generally weakened to e or i: reg-e-re, reg-imus; but sometimes it appears to take the form of δ or u: reg- δ , reg-u-nt. There is, however, some difference of opinion in regard to the origin of δ in such cases; see 247, 1, foot-note δ
- ² With variable Thematic vowel; see foot-note 1, above. J, pronounced y, assimilated to l and r in *pelle* and *curre*, as in the Greek βάλλω, from βάλ-jω. See Curtius, Verbum, I., p. 300.
 - ³ For stista for stasta. The e in siste takes the several forms of the Thematic vowel. ⁴ S changed to r between two vowels; see 31, 1. The vowel a of the stem is

weakened to i before s, but to e before r; see 24, 1 and 2.

⁵ Reduplication with Thematic vowel.

6 N inserted and i-sc-e added.

II. PERFECT STEMS.

252. Vowel Stems form the Perfect Stem by adding v:

amŏ (a-ŏ)	, amāvī;	Stem	, amā;	Perfect Stem	, amāv;	to lor	e.
dēleŏ,	dēlēvī;	66	dēlē;	"	dělev	to des	troy.
audiŏ,	audīvī:	"	audī;	44	audīv;	to hee	ır.

- 1. In verbs in uŏ, the Perfect Stem is the same as the Verb Stem; acuŏ, acuï; Stem, acu; Perfect Stem, acu; to sharpen.
- 253. Many Liquid Stems, and a few others, form the Perfect Stem by adding u:

```
aluī:
                                    Perfect Stem, alu;
alŏ,
                     Stem, al;
                                                                     to nourish.
fremo.
           fremui:
                            frem;
                                                   fremu:
                                                                     to rage.
                        66
                                          46
teneŏ,
           tenui;
                            ten;
                                                   tenu;
                                                                     to hold.
                        66
                                          66
doceŏ,
           docui:
                            doc:
                                                   docu:
                                                                     to teach.
```

254. Most Consonant Stems form the Perfect Stem by adding s:

```
regŏ, rēxī; Stem, reg; Perfect Stem, rēx = regs; to rule.
scrībŏ, scrīpsī; "scrīb; "scrīps = scrīps; to write.
carpŏ, carpsī; "carp; "carp; to pluck.
```

- 255. A few Consonant Stems form the Perfect Stem without any suffix whatever. But of these—
- I. Some reduplicate the stem: 1

```
cano, cecini; Stem, can; Perfect Stem, cecin; to sing.
```

- 1. The REDUPLICATION consists of the initial consonant (or consonants) of the stem with the following vowel, or with e—generally with the following vowel, if that vowel is e, i, o, or u, otherwise with e; see examples under 271. 1, and 272. 1.
- 2. The Stem-Vowel a is generally weakened to i, sometimes to e: cadő, cecidi (for cecadi), to fall.
- 3. In Verbs beginning with Sp or St, the reduplication retains both consonants, but the stem drops the s: $sponde\tilde{o}$, $spopond\tilde{i}$ (for $spospond\tilde{i}$), to promise; $st\tilde{o}$, $stet\tilde{i}$ (for $stest\tilde{i}$), to stand.
- 4. In Compounds the reduplication is generally dropped, but it is retained in the compounds of $d\bar{o}$, to give; $st\bar{o}$, to stand; $disc\bar{o}$, to learn; $posc\bar{o}$, to demand; and sometimes in the compounds of $curr\bar{o}$, to run; re-spond $e\bar{o}$, re-spond \bar{e} , to answer; circum- $d\bar{o}$, circum- $ded\bar{i}$; circum- $st\bar{o}$, circum- $stet\bar{i}$, to encircle. The compounds of $d\bar{o}$ which are of the third conjugation change e of the reduplication into i: ad- $d\bar{o}$, ad- $did\bar{i}$ (for ad- $ded\bar{i}$), to add; see 259, 1.
 - II. Some lengthen the Stem-Vowel:2

```
emő, ēmī; Stem, em; Perfect Stem, ēm; to buy.
agő, ēgī; "ag; "ēg; to drive.
ab-igő, ab-ēgī; "abig; "abēg; to drive away.
```

Note.—The stem-vowels a and (in compounds) i generally become $\hat{\epsilon}$, as in $ag\check{o}$ and $ab \cdot ig\check{o}$.

¹ See lists, 271, 1, and 272, 1.

² See lists, 271, 2; 272, 2

III. Some retain the stem unchanged:1

īcŏ, vīsŏ,	īcī;	Stem, īc;	Perfect Stem,	īc;	to strike.
vīsŏ.	vīsī;	" vīs;	""	vīs:	to visit.

Note. -Of the few verbs belonging to this class, nearly all have the stem-syllable long.

III. SUPINE STEM.

256. The Supine Stem adds t to the Verb Stem :

amŏ,² dīcŏ,	amātum;	Stem,	amā; dic:	Supine Stem,	amāt; diet;	to love. to say.	
moneo,	monitum;	4.4	moni;3	"	monit;	to advise.	
děleő,	dēlētum;	"	dēlē;	"	dēlēt;	to destroy.	
audiō,	audītum;		audī;	"	audīt;	to hear.	
carpō,	carptum;	"	carp;	44	carpt;	to pluck.	

1. Stems in d and t, most stems in 1 and r, and a few others, change t into s:

laedō,	laesum;	Stem,	laed;	Supine Stem,	laes;4	to hurt.
vertŏ,	versum;	44	vert;	- "	vers; 4	$to \ turn.$
verro,	versum;	"	verr;	"	vers;	$to\ brush.$
fallŏ,	falsum;	"	fall;	"	fals;	to deceive.

CLASSIFICATION OF VERBS. 6

FIRST CONJUGATION.

CLASS I.—Stem in ā: Perfect in vī or uī.

257. Principal Parts in-o, are, avī, atum.

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation. The following are examples:

dōnāre	dönävī	donātum,	to bestow.
honōrāre	honorāvī	honoratum,	to honor.
līberāre	līberāvī	līberātum,	to free.
nōmināre	nōmināvī	nominātum,	to name.
pūgnāre	pūgnāvī	pūgnātum,	to fight.
spērāre	spērāvī	spērātum,	to hope.
	honōrāre līberāre nōmināre pūgnāre	honorāre honorāvī līberāvī nomināre nomināvī pūgnāre pūgnāvī	honorāre honorāvī honorātum, līberāre līberāvī līberātum, nomināre nomināvī nominātum, pūgnāre pūgnāvī pūgnātum,

Note 1.—Pōtō, āre, āvī, ātum, to drink, has also a supine, pōtum.

Note 2.—Cēnātus, from cēnō, 'to dine,' and jūrātus, from jūrō, 'to swear,' are active in meaning, having dined, etc. Pōtus, from pōtō, is also sometimes active in meaning.

1 See list, 272, 3.

² For amaŏ.

8 See 207

- 4 Lass is for lasdt, plaus for plaudt, vis for vidt, vers for vertt, fals for fallt, vers for vertt; see 35, 3, 2), note.
- ⁵ The Perfect Formation is selected as the special basis of this classification, because the irregularities of the other principal parts are less important and can be readily associated with this formation. In this classification the regular or usual formation is first given with a few examples, then complete lists (1) of all the simple verbs which deviate from this formation, and (2) of such compounds as deviate in any important particular from their simple verbs.
- ⁶ It is deemed unnecessary longer to retain the double mark \succeq over final o in verbs. The pupil has now learned that this vowel may be short, though it is generally long in the Augustan poets.

to dive

258. Principal Parts in-ō, are, uī, itum.1

-			
crepāre cubāre	crepuī	crepitum,2	to creak.
domāre	domuĩ	domitum,	to tame.
ēnecāre	ēnecuī	ēnectum,4	to kill.
fricāre	fricuī	frictum, } fricātum, {	to rub.
micāre	micuī	5	to glitter.
plicāre	{ plicāvī } plicuī	plicātum, } plicitum, 6 {	to fold.
secāre	secuī	sectum,	to cut.
sonāre	sonuī	sonitum,7	$to \ sound.$
tonāre	tonuī		to thunder.
vetāre	vetuī	vetitum,	to forbid.
	cubăre domăre enecăre fricăre micăre plicăre secăre sonăre tonăre	cubāre cubuī domare domuī ēnecāre ēnecuī fricāre fricuī micāre micuī plicāre plicāre secāre secāre sonuī tonāre tonuī	cubāre domāre domuī enecāre enecuī fricāre plicāre plicāre secāre secuī sonāre sonūre sonāre tonūr cubītum, domitum, enectum, fricātum, fricātum, fricātum, plicātum, plicātum, plicātum, plicātum, plicātum, sectum, sonāre sonuī sonitum, sonitum, sonitum, fricātum, plicātum, plicātum, sectum, sonitum, sonitum, sonitum, sonitum, sonitum, sonitum, sonitum,

CLASS II.—PERFECT IN I.

259. Principal Parts in-ō, are, ī, tum.

1. WITH REDUPLICATION.8

datum

stō	stāre	stetī	stătum,	to stand.
	2. WITH	LENGTHENED	STEM-VOWEL.8	
juvõ	juvāre	jūvī	jūtum, ⁷ (lavātum ⁹)	to assist.
lavō	lavāre	lāvī	(lavātum, 9 lautum, lōtum,	to wash.

dedī

Note 1.—In $d\bar{o}$ the characteristic a is short by exception: 10 $da\bar{b}am$, $dab\bar{o}$, darem, etc. Four compounds of $d\bar{o}$ — $circumd\bar{o}$, $pessumd\bar{o}$, $satisd\bar{o}$, and $v\bar{e}numd\bar{o}$ —are conjugated like the simple verb; the rest are of the Third Conjugation (271). The basis of several of these compounds is $d\bar{o}$, 'to place,' originally distinct from $d\bar{o}$, 'to give.'

NOTE 2.—Compounds of sto generally want the Supine. In the Perfect they have stet?, if the first part is a dissyllable, otherwise stit?: adsto, adstare, adstit?. Disto and exsto want Perfect and Supine.

1 Note deviations in the Supine.

dare

- ² Increpo, are, uī (avī), itum (atum); discrezo, are, uī (avī), ---.
- ³ Compounds which insert m, as accumbo, etc., are of Conj. III.; see 273.
- 4 The simple neco is regular, and even in the compound the forms in avi and atum occur.
 - ⁵ Dīmicō, āre, āvī (uī), ātum; ēmicō, āre, uī, ātum.
 - 6 Duplico, multiplico, replico, and supplico, are regular: are, avī, atum.
- 7 Seco has participle secātūrus; sono, sonātūrus; juvo, juvātūrus, in compounds also jūtūrus. Resono has Perfect resonūvī. Most compounds of sono want the Supine.
 - 8 See 255, I. and II.

дā

- In poetry, lavo is sometimes of Conj. III.: lavo, lavere, lavo, etc.
- ¹⁰ This short vowel is explained by the fact that $d\tilde{a}$ is a root-verb formed directly from the root da without the suffix from which the \tilde{a} is derived in other verbs in this conjugation; see 250, foot-note.

260. DEPONENT VERBS.

In this conjugation deponent verbs are entirely regular.

mīror mīrārī mīrātus sum, to admire.	conor	conārī	conātus sum,	to endeavor.
	hortor	hortārī	hortātus sum,	to exhort.
	miror	mīrārī	mīrātus sum,	to admire.

SECOND CONJUGATION.

CLASS I.—STEM IN ē: PERFECT IN VI OR UI.

261. Principal Parts in—eō, ēre, ēvī, ētum.

These endings belong to the following verbs:

dēleō	dēlēre	dēlēvī	dēlētum,	to destroy. to fill. to weep. to spin.
compleō	complēre	complēvī	complētum,¹	
fleō	flēre	flēvī	flētum,	
neō	nēre	nēvī	nētum,²	

262. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, uī, itum.

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation. The following are examples:

dēbeō	dēbēre	dēbuī	dēbitum,	to owe.
habeō	habēre	habuī	habitum,	to have.
moneō	monēre	monuī	monitum,	to advise.
noceō	nocēre	nocuī	nocitum,	to hurt.
pāreō	pārēre	pāruī	pāritum,	to obey.
placeō	placēre	placui	placitum,	to please.
taceō	tacēre	tacuī	tacitum,	to be silent.

Note 1.—Many verbs with the Perfect in uï want the Supine. The following are the most important:

candeo, to shine.	madeō,	to be wet.	sorbeo, to swallow.
egeo, to want.	niteō,	to shine.	splendeo, to shine.
ēmineō, to stand forth.	oleō,	to smell.	studeo, to study.
floreo, to bloom.	palleo,	to be pale.	stupeo, to be amazed.
frondeo, to bear leaves.	pateō,	to be open.	timeo, to fear.
horreo, to shudder.	rubeō,	to be red.	torpeo, to be torpid.
lateo, to be hid.	sileō,	to be silent.	vireo, to be green.

Note 2.—Some verbs, derived mostly from adjectives, want both Perfect and Supine. The following are the most important:

	to be white. to be bald.				to be sad. to be powerful.
cāneō,	to be gray. to be yellow.	immineō, lacteō,	to threaten.	renideo,	

¹ So other compounds of the obsolete pleo: expleo, impleo, etc.

² To these may be added aboleo, abolere, abolevi, abolitum, 'to destroy,' with Supine in itum. See also aboleoco, 277.

CLASS II.—Stem in c, n, r, or s: Perfect in ui.1

263. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, uī, tum or sum.2

These endings belong to the following verbs:

cēnseō doceō	cēnsēre docēre	cēnsuī docuī	cēnsum, ³ dōctum,	to think. to teach.
misceō	miscēre	miscuī	mīstum, mīxtum,	to mix.
teneō torreō	tenēre torrēre	tenuī torruī	tentum,4	to hold. to roast.

CLASS III.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN SI OR I.

264. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, sī, tum.

augeō augēre auxī auctum, to ince indulgeō indulgēre indulsī indultum, to ind torqueō torquēre torsī tortum, to twice	lulge.
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265. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, sī, sum.2

algeō	algēre	alsī .		to be cold.
ārdeō	ārdēre	ārsī	ārsum,	to burn.
cōnīveō	conivere	∫ cōnīvī } } cōnīxī ∫		to wink at.
frīgeō	frīgēre	frīxī (rare)		to be cold.
fulgeō	fulgëre	fulsī	5	to shine.
haereō	haerēre	haesī	haesum,6	to stick.
jubeō	jubēre	jūssī	jūssum,	to order.
lūceō	lūcēre	lūxī		to shine.
lūgeõ	lügēre	lūxī		to mourn.
maneō	manēre	mānsī	mānsum,	to remain.
mulgeō	mulgēre	mulsī	mulsum,	to $milk$.
mulceō	mulcēre	mulsī	mulsum,7	to soothe.
rīdeō	rīdēre	rīsī	rīsum,	to laugh.
suādeō	suādēre	suāsī	suāsum,	to advise.
tergeō	tergēre	tersī	tersum,	to wipe.
turgeō	turgēre	tursī(rare)		to swell.
urgeō (urgueō)	urgēre	ursī	Name and Address of the Owner, when the Owner, which the Owner,	to press.

Note.—Cieō, cière, civī, citum, to arouse, has a kindred form, ciō, cire, civī, cītum, from which it seems to have obtained its Perfect. In compounds the forms of the Fourth Conj. prevail, especially in the sense of to call, call forth.

¹ For convenience of reference, a *General List* of all verbs involving irregularities will be found on page 383.

² The Present Stem adds ē; see 251, 5. For phonetic changes, see 33-36.

³ Participle cēnsus and cēnsītus.—Percēnseō wants Supine: recēnseō has recēnsum and recēnsītum.

⁴ In most compounds the Supine is rare.

⁵ Poetic, fulgo, fulgere, etc.

⁶ The stem of haere \tilde{o} is haes. The Present adds \tilde{e} and changes s to r between two vowels. In haes \tilde{e} and haes um, s standing for ss or st is not changed.

⁷ In compounds sometimes mulctum.

mordeō

reor

266. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, ī, tum.

WITH LENGTHENED STEM-VOWEL.

caveō	cavēre	cāvī	cautum,	to beware.
faveō	favēre	fāvī	fautum,	to favor.
foveō	fovēre	fövī	fōtum,	to cherish.
moveō	movēre	mōvĩ	mõtum,	to move.
paveō	pavēre	pāvī		to fear.
voveō	vovēre	vovī	võtum,	to vow.

267. Principal Parts in-eō, ēre, ī, sum.

momordī

1. WITH REDUPLICATION.1

to bite.

to think.

morsum,

pendeō spondeō tondeō	pendēre spondēre tondēre	pependī spopondī totondī	pēnsum, spōnsum, tōnsum,	to hang. to promise. to shear.
	2. W	TH LENGTHENED S	STEM-VOWEL.	
sedeō videō	sedēre vidēre	sēdī vīdī	sēssum, ² vīsum,	to sit. to see.
	3	. WITH UNCHANGE	D STEM.	
cōnīveō ferveō langueō liqueō prandeō strīdeō	cōnīvēre fervēre languēre liquēre prandēre strīdēre	cōnīvī, cōnīxī fervī, ferbuī languī liquī, licuī prandī strīdī	3 prānsum,4	to wink at. to boil. to be languid. to be liquid. to dine. to creak.

268. Deponent Verbs.

mordēre

		1. Regular.	
liceor mereor polliceor tueor vereor	licērī merērī pollicērī tuērī verērī	licitus sum, meritus sum, pollicitus sum, tuitus sum, tütus sum, tütus sum, veritus sum,	to bid. to deserve. to promise. to protect. to fear.
		2. Irregular.	
fateor medeor	fatērī medērī	fassus sum, ⁵	to confess. to cure.
misereor	miserērī	miseritus sum, misertus sum.	to pity.

¹ For reduplication in compounds, see 255, I., 4.

ratus sum,

rērī

² So circumsedeo and supersedeo. Other compounds thus: assideo, ère, assèdi, issèssum; but dissideo, praesideo, and resideo, want Supine.

³ Observe that the supine stem is wanting in most of these verbs.

⁴ Participle, pransus, in an active sense, having dined.

⁵ Confiteor, eri, confessus: so profiteor.

3. Semi-Deponent-Deponent in the Perfect.

audeō	audēre	ausus sum,	to dare.
gaudeō	gaudēre	gāvīsus sum,	to rejoice.
soleō	solēre	solitus sum,	to be accustomed.

THIRD CONJUGATION.

Note.—This conjugation contains the primitive verbs of the language; see 335.

CLASS I.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN SI OR I.

269. Principal Parts in—ō (or iō), ere, sī, tum.

These are the regular endings in verbs whose stems end in a consonant. The following are examples:1

carpō	carpere	carpsī	carptum,2	to pluck.
cingō	cingere	$\operatorname{cinx}_{\overline{i}}(g_{s\overline{i}})$	cinctum,	to gird.
dīcō	dīcere	dixī	dictum,	to say. •
dūcō	dūcere	duxī	ductum,	to lead.
exstinguō	exstinguere	exstinxī	exstinctum,3	to extinguish.
gerō	gerere	gessī	gestum,	to carry.
nūbō	nūbere	nūpsī	nūptum,	to marry.
regõ	regere	rēxī	rēctum,2	to rule.
sūmō	sümere	sum ps i	sümptum,	to take.
trahō	trahere	traxī	tractum,	to draw.
ūrō	ūrere	ūssī	ūstum,	to burn.
vehō	vehere	vēxī	vēctum,	to carry.
vīvō	vīvere	vīxī	vīctum,	to live.

270. Principal Parts in—ō (or iō), ere, sī, sum.1

cēdō	$c\bar{e}dere$	cēssī	cēssum,	to yield.
claudō	claudere	clausī	clausum,4	to close.
dīvidō	dīvidere	dīvīsī	dīvīsum,	to divide.
ēvādö	ēvādere	ēvāsī	ēvāsum,	to evade.
fīgö	fīgere	fīxī	fīxum,	to fasten.
flectō	flectere	flēxī	flēxum,	to bend.
$frend\bar{o}$	frendere		frēsum, } frēssum, }	to gnash.
laedõ	laedere	laesī	laesum,4	to hurt.
lūdō	lüdere	lūsī	lūsum,	to play.
mittō	mittere	mīsī	missum,	to send.
mergő	mergere	mersī	mersum,	to dip .
nectō	nectere	nēxī nēxuī ⁶ }	nēxum,	to bind.
pectō	pectere	pēxī	pēxum,	to $comb$.

¹ For Phonetic Changes, see 30-36.

² The stem-vowel is often changed in compounds: carpō, dē-cerpō; regō, dī-rigō; for this change, see 344, 4; also 221.

³ So other compounds of stinguō (rare): dīstinguō, etc.

⁴ Compounds of claudo have u for au, con-cludo; those of laedo, i for ae, il-lido; those of plaudo generally o for au, ex-plodo; those of quatio, cu for qua, con-cutio.

⁵ So other compounds of vādō. 6 Compounds take this form in the Perfect.

plectō plaudō premō	plectere plaudere premere	plēxī plausī pressī ²	plēxum, plausum, ¹ pressum,	to plait. to applaud. to press.
quatiō	quatere	quassī 2	quassum,1	to shake.
spargo	spargere	sparsī	sparsum,	to scatter.
rādō	rädere	rāsī	rāsum,	to shave.
rōdō	rödere	rōsī	rōsum,	to gnaw.
tergō	tergere	tersī	tersum,	to wipe off.
trūdō	trūdere	trūsī	trūsum,	to thrust.

271. Principal Parts in-ō (or iō), ere, ī, tum.

1. WITH REDUPLICATION.

	**	TT TALL TOPPOTA	di Cari a Cari	
abdō	abdere	abdidī	abditum,4	to hide.
canō	canere	cecinī	cantum,5	to sing.
crēdő	crēdere	crēdidī	crēditum,6	to believe.
discō	discere	didicī		to learn.
pangō	pangere	pepigī	pāctum,	to bargain.
pangō	pangere	{ panxī } pēgī	panctum, 7)	to fix in.
pariō	parere	peperī	partum,8	to bring forth
sistō	sistere	stitī	statum,9	to place.
tangō	tangere	tetigī	tāctum, 10	to touch.
tendō	tendere	tetendī	{ tentum, 10 } tensum, {	to stretch.
tollō	tollere	sustulī	`sublātum, 11	to raise.
věndô	vēndere	vēndidī	vēnditum,6	to sell.
pungō	pungere	pupugī	punctum, ¹²	to prick.
	2. WITH	LENGTHENED	STEM-VOWEL.	
agō	agere	ēgī	āctum,13	to drive.
capiō	capere	cēpī	captum,14	to take.

1 See page 127, foot-note 4.

emere

emõ

- ² See 34, 1, note; 35, 3, 2).
- 3 Also tergeo, tergere, etc.; compounds take this form; see 265.
- 4 So all compounds of do except those of Conjugation I.; see 259, note 1.

ēmī

Concino, ere, concinui, ——; so occino and praecino; other compounds want Perfect and Supine.

ēmptum.15

to buy.

- Explained as a compound of do; see abdo.
- 7 Compingo, ere, compêgo, compactum; so also impingo. Dēpango wants Perfect; repango, Perfect and Supine.
 - 8 Participle, pariturus: compounds are of Conjugation IV.
 - Ompounds thus: consisto, ere, constitu, constitum; but circumstett also occurs.
 - 10 Compounds drop the reduplication.
 - 11 Attollo and extollo want Perfect and Supine.
 - 12 Compounds thus: compungo, ere, compunxi, compunctum.
- 13 So circumago and perago; satago wants Perfect and Supine. Other compounds change a into i in the Present: abigō, ere, abēgī, abāctum; but coigō becomes cōgō, ere, coēgī, coāctum, and deigō, dēgō, ere, dēgī, without Supine. Prōdigō wants Supine, and ambigo, Perfect and Supine.
 - 14 So antecapió; other compounds thus: accipió, ere, accept, acceptum.
 - 16 So coemo; other compounds thus: adimo, ere, ademi, ademptum.

faciō	facere	fēcī	factum,1	to make.
fugiō	fugere	fūgī	fugitum,	to flee.
jació	jacere	jēcī	jactum,2	to throw.
frango	frangere	frēgī	frāctum,3	to break.
legō	legere	lēgī	lēctum,⁴	to read.
linquō	linquere	līquī	5	to leave.
scabō	scabere	scābī		to scratch.
vincō	vincere	vīcī	victum,	to conquer.
rumpō	rumpere	rūpī	ruptum,	to burst.

272. Principal Parts in—ō (or iō), ere, ī, sum.6

1. WITH REDUPLICATION.

cadō	cadere	$\operatorname{cecid} \overline{\mathbf{i}}$	cāsum,	to fall.
caedō	caedere	cecīdī	caesum,8	to cut.
currõ	currere	cucurrī	cursum,9	to run.
fallō	fallere	fefellī	falsum, 10	to deceive.
parco	parcere	pepercī (parsī)	parsum,11	to spare.
pellö	pellere	pepulī	pulsum, 12	to drive.
pendő	pendere	pependī	pēnsum, ¹²	to weigh.
poscō	poscere	poposcī	13	to demand.
tundō	tundere	tutudī	∫ tūnsum,¹² } } tūsum, ∫	to beat.

2. WITH LENGTHENED STEM-VOWEL.

edo	eaere	eai	esum,	to eat.
fodiō	fodere	fōdī	fossum,	to dig.
$fund\bar{o}$	fundere	$\mathbf{f}\mathbf{\tilde{u}}\mathbf{d}\mathbf{\tilde{i}}$	fūsum,	to pour.

3. WITH UNCHANGED STEM.

accendō	accendere	accendī		to kindle.
cūdō	cūdere	cūdī		to forge.
dēfendō	dēfendere	dēfendī		to defend.
			,	,

¹ Passive irregular: fvo, fiero, factus sum; see 294. So satisfacio and compounds of facio with verbs; but compounds with prepositions thus: conficio, conficere, confect, confectum; with regular Passive, conficio, conficio, confectus sum.

² Superjació has jactum or jectum in Supine: compounds with monosyllabic prepositions thus: abició, abicere, abicci, abicetum; see page 20, foot-note 1.

³ Compounds thus: confringo, ere, confregi, confractum.

⁴ So compounds, except (1) $collig\bar{o}$, ere, $coll\bar{e}g\bar{v}$, collectum; so $d\bar{e}lig\bar{o}$, $\bar{e}lig\bar{o}$, $e\bar{e}lig\bar{o}$ —(2) $d\bar{v}lig\bar{o}$, ere, $d\bar{v}l\bar{e}\bar{v}\bar{v}$, $d\bar{v}l\bar{e}ctum$; so $intelleg\bar{o}$, $n\bar{e}gleg\bar{o}$, though $n\bar{e}gl\bar{e}g\bar{v}$ occurs in the Perfect.

⁵ Compounds with Supine: relinquō, ere, relīquī, relictum.

⁶ For Phonetic Changes, see 30-36.

Incidō, ere, incidī, incāsum; so occidō and recidō; other compounds want Supine.

⁸ Compounds thus: concido, ere, concido, concisum.

⁹ Excurro and praecurro generally retain the reduplication: excucurri, praecucur-ri; other compounds generally drop it.

¹⁰ Refello, ere, refelli, without Supine.

¹¹ Comparco, ere, comparsi, comparsum, also with e for a: comperco, ere, etc. Imparco and reparco want Perfect and Supine.

¹² Compounds drop reduplication, 255, I., 4.

¹³ Compounds retain reduplication, 255, I., 4.

¹⁴ So other compounds of the obsolete cando and fendo.

findō	findere	fidī (findī)	fissum,	to part.	
īcō	īcere	īcī	īctum,	to strike.	
mandō	mandere	mandī	mānsum,	to chew.	
pando	pandere	pandī -	passum, pānsum,	to open.	
		(pīnsī	(pīnsitum,	, ,	
pīnsō (pīsō)	pīnsere	į pīnsuī	pīstum,	to pound.	
prehendō	prehendere,	prehendī	`prehēnsum,¹	to grasp.	
scandō	scandere	scandī	scānsum,	to climb.	
scindõ	scindere	scidī	scissum,	to rend.	
solvō	solvere	solvī	solūtum,²	$to \ loose.$	
vellō	vellere	vellī (vulsī)	vulsum,	to pluck.	
verrō	verrere	verrī	versum,	to brush.	
vertō	vertere	vertī	versum,3	to turn.	
vīsō -	vīsere	vīsī	vīsum,	to visit.	
volvō	volvere	volvī	volūtum,	$to \ roll.$	

Note 1.—Some verbs with the Perfect in $s\bar{\imath}$ or $\bar{\imath}$ want the Supine:

batud, ere, \overline{i} , to beat. psallo, ere, \overline{i} , to play the l bibd, ere, \overline{i} , to drink. sido, ere, \overline{i} , to sit down. eongrud, ere, \overline{i} , to agree. ningto, ere, \overline{i} , to snow. ingrud, ere, \overline{i} , to assait. strido, ere, \overline{i} , to creak. lambd, ere, \overline{i} , to blick, sternud, ere, \overline{i} , to sneeze.	
lambo, ere, 1, to tick. sternuo, ere, 1, to sheeze.	-

Note 2.—Some verbs want both Perfect and Supine:

clangō,	to clang.	hīscō,	to gape.
claudō,	to be lame.	vādō,	to go.5
fatiscō,	to gape.	temnō,	to despise.6
glīscō,	to grow.	vergō,	to incline.
giloco,	to grow.	, vergo,	to thethe.

CLASS II.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN uī.

273. Principal Parts in-o (or io), ere, ui, itum.

accumbō	accumbere	accubuī	accubitum,7	to recline.
alõ	alere	aluī	{ alitum, }	to nourish.
depsō	depsere	depsui	depsitum, depstum,	to knead.
ēliciō	ēlicere	ēlicuī	`ēlicitum,' ⁸	to elicit.
fremō gemō	fremere gemere	fremuī gemuī	fremitum, gemitum,	to rage. to groan.
gignō molō	gignere molere	genuī moluī	genitum, molitum,	to beget. to grind.
***************************************			,	

¹ Often written prēndō, prendere, etc.

² V is here changed to its corresponding vowel u: solutum for solutum.

 $^{^3}$ Compounds of $d\vec{e},\ prae,\ re,$ are generally deponent in the Present, Imperfect, and Future.

⁴ Perfect and Supine generally supplied from sedeo; hence sedi, sessum. So in compounds.

⁵ See ēvādō, 270.

⁶ But contemno, ere, contempsi, contemptum.

⁷ So other compounds of cumbo, cubo; see cubo, 258.

B Other compounds of lacio thus: allicio, allicere, allexi, allectum.

pīnsõ	pīnsere	{ pīnsuī { pīnsī	{ pīnsitum, } pīstum, } pīnsum, }	to crush.
pono	põnere	posuī	positum,	to place.
strepo	strepere	strepuī	strepitum,	to make a noise.
vomo	vomere	vomuī	vomitum,	to vomit.

Note.— $Comp\bar{e}sc\bar{o}$, 'to restrain'; $excell\bar{o}$,1 'to excel'; $fur\bar{o}$, 'to rage'; $stert\bar{o}$, 'to snore'; and $trem\bar{o}$, 'to tremble,' have the Perfect in $u\bar{i}$, but want the Supine.

274. Principal Parts in—ō (or iō), ere, uī, tum.

colō cōnsulō occulō rapiō serō texō	colere cōnsulere occulere rapere serere texere	coluī consuluī occuluī rapuī seruī texuī	cultum, cōnsultum, occultum, raptum, sertum, textum,	to cultivate. to consult. to hide. to snatch. to connect. to weave.
texo	texere	texui	textum,	to weave

275. Principal Parts in—ō, ere, suī, sum.

mető	metere	messuī 3	messum,	to reap.
$\mathbf{nect}\bar{\mathbf{o}}$	nectere	{ nexī } { nexuī }	nexum,	to bind.

CLASS III.—STEM IN A VOWEL: PERFECT IN VI OR I.

276. The following verbs have the Perfect in āvī from a stem in ā:

pāscō 4	pāscere	pāvī	pāstum,	to feed.
sternō	sternere	strāvī	strātum,	to strew.
veterāscō	veteräscere	veterāvī		to grow old

277. The following verbs have the Perfect in evi from a stem in e:

abolēscō cernō crēscō quiescō spernō	abolēscere cernere crēscere quiescere spērnere	abolēvī crēvī crēvī quiēvī sprēvī	abolitum, ⁵ crētum, crētum, ⁶ quiētum, sprētum,	to disappear. to decide. to grow. to rest. to spurn.
suēscō	suëscere	suēvī	suētum,	to become accustomed.

Note.—Serō, serere, sēvī, satum,7 to sow.

OCO The fellowing works have the

278. The following verbs have the Perfect in **īvī** from a stem in **ī**: arcēssē arcēssere arcēssīvī arcēssītum, to call for. capessē capessere capessīvī capessītum, to lay hold of. cupio cupio cupivī cupitum. to desire.

² Compounds thus: corripio, corripere, corripui, correptum.

Other compounds of cello want the Perfect and Supine, except percello, percellore, percult, perculsum.

³ The Perfect in suī seems to be a double formation, sī enlarged to suī.

⁴ The stem of pāscō is pā, pās; the Present Stem adds sce; see 251, 2.

⁶ So inolēsco; but adolēsco has Supine adultum; exolēsco, exolētum; obsolēsco, ebsolētum.

⁶ Incresco and succresco want the Supine.

⁷ Compounds thus: consero, conserere, consevi, consitum.

incēssõ	incēssere	incēssīvī }		to attack.
lacessõ	lacessere	lacessīvī	lacessītum,	to provoke.
linō	linere	līvī, lēvī	litum,	to smear.
nōscō	nöscere	nōvī	nōtum,1	to know.
petō	petere	petīvī	petītum,	to ask.
quaerō	quaerere	quaesīvī	quaesītum,2	to seek.
rudō	rudere	rudīvī	rudītum,	to bray.
sapiō	sapere	sapīvī, sapuī		to taste.
$\sin \bar{o}$	sinere	sīvī	situm,	to permit.
terõ	terere	trīvī	trītum,	to rub.

279. Principal Parts in—ō, ere, ī, tum.

These are the regular endings in verbs with u-stems. The following are examples:

acuō	acuere	acuī	acūtum,	to sharpen.
arguō	arguere	arguī	argūtum,	to convict.
imbuō	imbuere	imbuī	imbūtum,	to imbue.
minuō	minuere	$minu\bar{\imath}$	minūtum,	to diminish.
ruō	ruere	ruī	rutum,	to fall.
statuŏ	statuere	statuī	statūtum,	to place.
tribuō	tribuere	tribuī	tribūtum,	to impart.
Note.	Fluō and struō h	ave the Perfect in	ĸī.	_
fluō	fluere	flūxī 3	flūxum,	to flow.
struō	struere	strūxī³	strūctum,	to build.

INCEPTIVES.

280. Inceptives end in scō, and denote the beginning of an action.

Note.—When formed from verbs, they are called Verbal Inceptives, and when formed from nouns or adjectives, Denominative Inceptives.

281. Most Verbal Inceptives want the Supine, but take the Perfect of their primitives:

acēscō	(aceō)	acēscere	acui	 to become sour.
ārēscō	(āreō)	ārēscere	āruī	 to become dry.
calēscō	$(cale\bar{o})$	calēscere	caluī	 to become warm.
flörēscö	(flōreō)	flörëscere	flōruī	 to begin to bloom.
tepēscō	(tepeō)	tepēscere	tepuī	 to become warm.
viresco	(vireō)	virescere	viruī	 to become green.
virēscō	$(vire\bar{o})$	virēscere	viruī	 to become green.

Note.—The following take the Perfect and Supine of their primitives:

concupisco	(con, cupiō)	ere	concupīvī	concupītum,	to desire.
convalēscō	(con, valeo)	ere	convaluī	convalitum,	to grow strong.
exārdēscō	(ex, ardeo)	ere	exārsī	exārsum,	to burn.
inveterasco	(invetero)	ere	inveterāvī	inveteratum,	to grow old.
obdormisco	(ob, dormio)	ere	obdormīvī	obdormitum,	to fall asleep.
revīviscō	(re, vīvo)	ere	revixi	revictum,	to revive.
scīscō	$(re, viv\bar{v})$ (scio)	ere	scīvī	scītum,	to enact.

¹ So ignöscö; ägnöscö and cögnöscö have itum in Supine, ägnitum; dignöscö and internöscö want Supine.

² Compounds thus: acquiro, ere, acquisivi, acquisitum.

³ For flug-sī, strug-sī, formed not from u-stems, but from consonant-stems.

282. Most Denominative Inceptives want both Perfect and Supine:

dītēscō	(dives),	to grow rich.	mītescō	(mītis),	to grow mild.
dulcescō		to become sweet.	mollescō	(mollis),	to grow soft.
grandescō	(grandis),	to grow large.	puerāscō	(puer),	to become a boy.

Note.—The following have the Perfect in uī:

	0	-		
crēbrescō	(crēber)	ere	crēbruī,	to become frequent.
dūrēscō	$(d\bar{u}rus)$	ere	dūruī.	to become hard.
innōtēscō	(in, nōtus)	ere	innōtuï,	to become known.
macrēsco	(macer)	ere	macruï,	to become lean.
mātūrescō	$(m\bar{a}t\bar{u}rus)$	ere	mātūruī,	to ripen.
obmūtescō	(ob, mūtus)	ere	obmūtui,	to grow dumb.
recrūdescō	(re, crūdus)	ere	recrūdui,	to bleed afresh.
vīlescō	$(v\bar{\imath}lis)$	ere	vīluī,	to become worthless.

283. DEPONENT VERBS.

amplector	ī	amplēxus sum,	to embrace.
apiscor	ī	aptus sum,1	to obtain.
comminiscor	ī	commentus sum,2	to devise.
expergiscor	ī	experrēctus sum,	to awake.
fatiscor	ī ³		to gape,
fruor	ī	{ frūctus sum, } { fruitus sum, }	to enjoy.
fungor	ī —	functus sum,	to perform.
gradior	ī	grēssus sum,4	to walk.
īrāscor	Ĩ		to be angry.
lābor	ī	lāpsus sum,	to fall.
līquor	ī		to melt.
loquor	ī	locūtus sum,	to speak.
morior	ī (īrī, rare)	mortuus sum,5	to die.
nanciscor	ī	nactus (nanctus) sum,	to obtain.
nāscor	ĩ	nātus sum,5	to be born.
nītor	ī	{ nīsus sum, } } nīxus sum, {	to strive.
oblīviscor	ī	oblītus sum,	to forget.
paciscor	ī.	pactus sum,	to bargain.
patior	ī	passus sum,	to suffer.
proficiscor	ĩ	profectus sum,	to set out.
queror	ī	questus sum,	to complain.
reminiscor	ī		to remember.
ringor	ī	rīctus sum,	to growl.
sequor	ī	secūtus sum,	to follow.
ulciscor	ĩ	ultus sum,	to avenge.
ūtor	ī	ūsus sum,	to use.
vēscor	ī		to eat.

Semi-Deponent—Deponent in the Perfect.

	1	T	
fīdo	fīdere	fīsus sum,	to trust.

¹ Adipiscor, ī, adeptus sum; so indipiscor.

² Com-miniscor is compounded of con, and the obsolete miniscor; re-miniscor wants the Perfect.

³ Dē-fetiscor, ī, dē-fessus sum.

⁴ Compounds thus: aggredior, ī, aggrēssus sum.

⁶ Morior has future participle moriturus; nuscor, nusciturus.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.

CLASS I.—STEM IN I: PERFECT IN VI.

284. Principal Parts in—iō, īre, īvī, ītum.

The following are examples:

fīniō lēniō mūniō pūniō sciŏ sepeliō sitiō vāgiō	fīnīre lēnīre mūnīre pūnīre scīre sepelīre sitīre vāgīre	fīnīvī lēnīvī mūnīvī pūnīvī scīvī sepelīvī sitīvī vāgīvī	fīnītum, lēnītum, mūnītum, pūnītum, scītum, sepultum,	to finish. to alleviate. to fortify. to punish. to know. to bury. to thirst. to cry.
---	--	---	---	--

Note 1.—Vis often dropped in the Perfect: audit for audivi; see 235, 1.

Note 2.—Desideratives (338, III.)—except èsurio, ire, —, itum; nupturio, ire, ivi, and parturio, ire, ivi—want both Perfect and Supine. Also a few others:

bālbūtiō, caecūtiō, feriō,	to stammer. to be blind. to strike.	ferēciē, ganniē, ineptiē,	to be fierce. to bark. to trifle.	sāgiō, superbiō, tussiō,	to be wise. to be proud. to cough.

CLASS II.—Stem in c, l, or r: Perfect in ui.

285. Principal Parts in-iō, īre, uī, tum.

amiciō	amicīre	amicuī (xī)	amictum,	to clothe.
aperiō	aperīre	aperuī	apertum,	to open.
operiō	operīre	operuī	opertum,	to cover.
saliō	salīre	saluī (iī)	(saltum), ⁹	to leap.

CLASS III.—STEM IN A CONSONANT: PERFECT IN SI OR I.

286. Principal Parts in—iō, īre, sī, tum.

farciō	farcīre	farsī	{ fartum, } } farctum, {	to stuff.
fulciō	fulcīre	fulsī	fultum,	to prop.
hauriō ⁴	haurīre	hausī	haustum, hausum,	to draw.
saepiō	saepīre	saepsī	saeptum,	to hedge in.
sanciō	sancīre	sanxī	{ sancītum, } { sanctum, }	to ratify.
sarciō	sarcīre	sarsī	sartum,	to patch. to bind.
vinciō	vincīre	vinxī	vinctum,	

¹ Supine irregular.

² Compounds thus: desilio, ire, uī (iī), (desultum).

³ Compounds thus: confercio, ire, confersi, confertum.

⁴ The stem of haurio is haus. The Present adds $\bar{\imath}$ and changes s to r between two vowels. In hausi and hausum, s standing for ss or st is not changed.

to begin.

to rise.

287. Principal Parts in-io, īre, sī, sum.

rauciō sentiō	raucīre - sentīre	rausī sēnsī	rausum, sēnsum,	to be hoarse. to feel.
Note.—T	he following ver	bs have the Pe	rfect in i:	
comperio reperio venio	comperīre reperīre venīre	comperī reperī vēnī ¹	compertum, repertum, ventum,	to learn. to find. to come.

288. DEPONENT VERBS.

		1. Regular.	*
blandior	īrī	blandītus sum,	to flatter.
largior	īrī	largītus sum,	to bestow.
mentior	īrī	mentītus sum,	to lie.
mölior	īrī	mõlītus sum,	to strive.
partior	īrī	partītus sum,	to divide.
potior 2	īrī	potītus sum,	to obtain.
sortior	īrī	sortītus sum,	to draw lots,
		2. Irregular.	
assentior 3	īrī	assēnsus sum,	to assent.
experior	īrī	expertus sum,	to try.
mētior	īrī	mēnsus sum,	to measure.
opperior	īrī	oppertus sum, opperitus sum,	to await.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

orsus sum,

ortus sum,

289. A few verbs which have special irregularities are called by way of preëminence Irregular or Anomalous Verbs. They are sum, $ed\bar{o}$, $fer\bar{o}$, $vol\bar{o}$, $f\bar{\imath}\bar{o}$, $e\bar{o}$, $que\bar{o}$, and their compounds.

290. Sum, 'I am,' and its compounds.

īrī

īrī

I. The conjugation of sum has been already given (201); its numerous compounds—absum, ⁵ adsum, dēsum, praesum, ⁵ etc.—except possum and prōsum, are conjugated in the same way.

ordior

orior

With lengthened stem-vowel.

² In the Present Indicative and Subjunctive, forms of Conjugation III. occur.

³ Compounded of ad and sentio; see 287.

⁴ Participle, oritūrus.—Present Indicative, Conjugation III., oreris, oritur. Imperfect Subjunctive, orirer or orerer.—So compounds, but adorior follows Conjugation IV.

⁶ Absum and praesum, like possum, have Present Participles, absēns and praesēns, used as adjectives, absent, present.

II. Possum,

posse,

potui,

to be able.

SINGULAR.

INDICATIVE.

PLURAL.

Pres. possum, potes, potest; Imp. poteram; 1

possumus, potestis, possunt. poterāmus.

Fut. potero;

poterimus. potuimus.

Perf. potui; Plup. potueram; F. P. potuero;

potuerāmus. potuerīmus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. possim, possis, possit;

possīmus, possītis, possint. possēmus.

Imp. possem; Perf. potuerim; Plup. potuissem;

potuerīmus. potuissēmus.

Infinitive.

Participle.

Pres. posse.

Pres. potens (as an adjective).

Perf. potuisse.

Note 1 .- Possum is compounded of potis, 'able,' and sum, 'to be.' The parts are sometimes separated, and then potis is indeclinable: potis sum, potis sumus, etc. Note 2.-In possum observe-

1) That potis drops is, and that t is assimilated before s: possum for potsum.

That f of the simple is dropped after t: potuī for potfuī.

 That the Infinitive posse and Subjunctive possem are shortened forms for potesse and potessem.

NOTE 3 .- For OLD AND RARE FORMS, see 204, 2.

III. Prosum, 'I profit,' is compounded of pro, prod, 'for,' and sum, 'to be.' It retains d when the simple verb begins with e: prosum, prodes, prodest, etc. Otherwise it is conjugated like sum.

291. Edő.

edere.

ēdī.

ēsum.

to eat.

This verb is sometimes regular, and sometimes takes forms similar, except in quantity,2 to those of sum which begin in es. Thus-

INDICATIVE.

Pres. } edő,

edis, ēs. 2

edit; ēst:

edimus,

editis, ēstis.

edunt.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

ederēs, ēssēs,

ederet: ederēmus, ēsset; ēssēmus,

ederētis, ēssētis.

ederent. ēssent.

² These forms have \bar{e} long before s, while the corresponding forms of sum have e short.

¹ Inflected regularly through the different persons: poteram, poteras, poterat, etc. So also in the other tenses: potuī, potuīstī, etc.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \mathrm{ede};\\ \bar{\mathrm{e}}\mathrm{s}; \end{array} \right.$	(ede;	edite
	ēste.	

Pres.

editōte, eduntō. ēstōte.

Infinitive.

edere. ēsse.

Note 1.—In the Passive, estur for editur and essetur for ederetur also occur. NOTE 2.—FORMS IN IM for am occur in the Present Subjunctive: edim, edis, edit,

etc., for edam, edas, edat, etc. Note 3.—Compounds are conjugated like the simple verb, but comedo has in the Supine comēsum or comēstum,

292. Ferō, ferre, tulī, lātum, to bear.

ACTIVE VOICE.

SINGULAR.	INDICATIVE.	PLURAL

Pres. ferō, fers, fert; ferimus, fertis,2 ferunt.

Imp. ferebam;3 ferēbāmus. Fut. feram: ferēmus. Perf. tuli; tulimus.

Plup, tuleram: tulerāmus. F. P. tulero: tulerimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE. Pres. feram: ferāmus.

Imp. ferrem; ferrēmus.4 tulerimus. Perf. tulerim;

Plup. tulissem: tulissēmus.

IMPERATIVE. Pres. fer:5 ferte. Fut. ferto. fertōte. fertō; feruntō.

INFINITIVE. Participle.

Pres. ferre.4 Pres. ferens.

Perf. tulisse.

¹ See page 136, foot-note 2.

Fut. lātūrus esse.

Fut. lātūrus.

3 Inflect the several tenses in full: ferēbam, ferēbās, etc.

* Ferrem, etc., for fererem, etc.; ferre for ferere (e dropped).

² Fer-s, fer-t, fer-tis, like es-t, es-tis, dispense with the usual thematic vowel i. With such vowel the forms would be feris, ferit, feritis.

Fer for fere; ferto, ferte, fertote, ferrie, fertur, without thematic vowel.

GERUND. SUPINE.

Gen. ferendī,
Dat. ferendō,

Acc. ferendum, Acc. lātum,

Abl. ferendő. Abl. lätü.

PASSIVE VOICE.

feror, ferrī, lātus sum, to be borne.

SINGULAR. INDICATIVE. PLURAL.

Pres. feror, ferris, fertur; 1 ferimur, feriminī, feruntur.

 Imp. ferēbar;
 ferēbāmur.

 Fut. ferar;
 ferēmur.

 Perf. lātus sum;
 lātī sumus.

 Plup. lātus eram;
 lātī erāmus.

 F. P. lātus erō:
 lātī erimus.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. ferar; ferāmur.

Imp. ferrer; ferrēmur.

Perf. lātus sim; lātī sīmus.

Plup. lātus essem; lātī essēmus.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. ferre; 1
Fut. fertor, 1

Fut. fertor, 1

fertor; feruntor.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres. ferrī.1

Perf. lātus esse. Perf. lātus. Fut. lātum īrī. Ger. ferendus.

1. Ferō has two principal irregularities:

 Its forms are derived from three independent stems, seen in ferō, tuli, lātum.

2) It dispenses with the thematic vowel, e or i, before r, s, and t.

2. COMPOUNDS of fero are conjugated like the simple verb, but in a few of them the preposition suffers a euphonic change:

ab-	auferō	auferre	abstulī	ablātum
ad-	adferō	adferre	attulī	allātum
con-	confero	$c\bar{o}nferre$	contuli	collātum
dis-	differō	differre	distulī	dīlātum
ex-	efferō	efferre	extulī	ēlātum
in-	īnferō	Inferre	intulī	illātum
ob-	offerō	offerre	obtulī	oblātum
8u b-	sufferō	sufferre	sustulī	sublātum

¹ Without thematic vowel.

Note.—Sustuli and sublatum are not often used in the sense of suffero, to bear, but they supply the Perfect and Supine of tollo, to raise; see 271.

I I			,	
293.	Volŏ,	velle,	voluī,	to be willing.
	Nōlō,	nõlle,	nõluī,	to be unwilling.
	Mālō,	mālle,	māluī,	to prefer.

INDICATIVE

	1.1	DICATIVE.	
Pres.	volŏ,	nōlō,	mālō,
	vīs,	non vīs,	māvīs,
	vult;	non vult;	māvult;
	volumus,	nōlumus,	mālumus,
	vultis,	non vultis,	māvultis,
	volunt.	nölunt.	mālunt.
Imp.	volēbam.	nölēbam.	mālēbam.
Fut.	volam.	nōlam.	mālam.
Perf.	voluī.	nōluī.	māluī.
Plup.	volueram.	nölueram.	mālueram.
F. P.	voluerō.	nõluerõ.	māluerō.

	SUBJUNCTIVE.	
Pres. velim.1	nōlim.	mālim.
Imp. vellem.2	nöllem.	māllem.
Perf. voluerim.	nõluerim.	māluerim.
Plup. voluissem.	nōluissem.	māluissem.

IMPERATIVE.

Pres.	nōlī,	nõlīte.
Fut.	nõlītō,	nōlītōte,
	nōlītō;	nōluntō.

INFINITIVE

	TIAL THILLY 17.	
Pres. velle.	nõlle.	mālle.
Perf. voluisse.	nõluisse.	māluisse.
	PARTICIPIE	

nölēns.

 	1 210101	,		4
Note 1.—The stem	of volŏ is vol, w	ith variable ste	em-vowel, o, e, u	
NOTE 2 NOLO is co	ompounded of	nē or nōn and	volo; MALO, of	nagis

and volo. NOTE 3.—RARE FORMS.—(1) Of VOLO: volt, voltis, for vult, vultis; sis, sūltis, for sī vīs, sī vultis; vīn' for vīsne.—(2) Of NOLO: nēvīs, nēvult (nēvolt),

Pres. volēns.

Velim is inflected like sim, and vellem like essem.

² Vellem and velle are syncopated forms for velerem, velere; e is dropped and r assimilated: velerem, velrem, vellem; velere, velre, velle. So nollem and nolle, for nolerem and nolere; mallem and malle, for malerem and malere.

nëvelle, for nön (në) vis, nön (në) vult, nölle.—(3) Of mālo: māvolō, māvelim, māvellem, for mālō, mālim, māllem.

294.	Fīō,	fierī,	factus sum	1,	to become, be made.
	5	INGULAR.	INDICATIVE	.	PLURAL.
	Pres.	fīō, fīs, fit;			fīmus, fītis, fīunt.
		fīēbam;			fīēbāmus.
	•	fīam;			fīēmus.
		factus sum;			factī sumus.
		factus eram;			factī erāmus.
		factus erō; .			factī erimus.
			Subjunctivi	R!	
		nam;	NO DO CITOTIVI		fīāmus.
	-	fierem;			fierēmus.
		factus sim;			factī sīmus.
11	Plup.	factus essem	;		factī essēmus.
			IMPERATIVE	c.	_
	Pres.	fī;			fīte.
-	IN	FINITIVE.		I	PARTICIPLE.
	Pres.	fierī.			
	Perf.	factus esse.		Perf.	factus.
	Fut.	factum īrī.		Ger.	faciendus.
295.	Еō,	īre,	īvī,	itum	to go.
			INDICATIVE		
		eō, īs, it;			īmus, ītis, eunt.
		ībam;			ībāmus.
	Fut.	, .			ībimus.
	Perf.	-			īvimus.
	-	īveram;			īverāmus.
	F. P.	īverō;			īverīmus.
	Pres	eam;	Subjunctivi	E.	eāmus.
		īrem;			īrēmus.
	-	Iverim;			īverīmus.
		īvissem;			īvissēmus.
	1	-	IMPERATIVE	,	
	Pres.	ī;	IMPERATIVE	4.	īte.
	Fut.	ītō,			ītōte,
		ītō;			euntō.

 $^{^1}$ Compounds of five are conjugated like the simple verb, but confit, defit, and infit are defective; see 297, III., 2.

-Infinitive.	PARTICIPLE.
Pres. Tre.	Pres. iens, Gen. euntis.
Perf. īvisse.	
Fut. itūrus esse.	Fut. itūrus.
GERUND.	SUPINE.
Gen. eundī,	
Dat. eundō,	
Acc. eundum,	Acc. itum,
Abl. eundō.	Abl. itū.

1. Eo is a verb of the Fourth Conjugation, but it forms the Supine with a short vowel (itum), and is irregular in several parts of the Present System. It admits contraction according to 235: īstis for īvīstis, etc.

2. E7, as an intransitive verb, wants the Passive, except when used impersonally in the third singular, itur, ibātur, etc. (301, 1), but iri, the Passive Infinitive, occurs as an auxiliary in the Future Infinitive Passive of the regular conjugations: amātum iri, etc.

8. COMPOUNDS of $e\bar{v}$ generally shorten $\bar{v}v\bar{i}$ into $i\bar{v}$. Vēne \bar{v} (vēnum $e\bar{v}$) has sometimes $v\bar{e}ni\bar{e}bam$ for $v\bar{e}n\bar{v}bam$. Many compounds want the Supine, and a few admit in the Future a rare form in eam, $i\bar{e}s$, iet.

Note 1.—Transitive compounds have the Passive: adeo, to approach; adeor, etc. Note 2.—Ambio is regular, like audio, though ambibam for ambiebam occurs.

296. Queō, quīre, quīvī, quitum, to be able, and nequeō, nequīre, nequīvī (iī), nequitum, to be unable, are conjugated like eō, but they want the Imperative and Gerund, and are rare except in the Present tense.¹

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

297. Defective Verbs want certain parts. The following are the most important:²

I. PRESENT SYSTEM WANTING.

Coepī, I have begun.	Meminī, I remember.	$\bar{\mathrm{Odi}}$, I hate.
Perf. coepī. Plup. coeperam. F. P. coeperō.	INDICATIVE. meminī. memineram. meminerō.	ōdī. ōderam. ōderō.
Perf. coeperim. Plup. coepissem.	SUBJUNCTIVE. meminerim. meminissem.	öderim. ödissem.
•	IMPERATIVE. Sing. mementō. Plur. mementōte.	

¹ A Passive form, quitur, nequitur, etc., occurs before a Passive Infinitive.

² For many verbs which want the Perfect or Supine, or both, see 262-284.

		I	NFINITIVE.	,		
Perf. coepisse			neminisse.	-1	ōdisse.	
Fut. coeptur	us esse.				ōsūrus e	sse.
		P.	ARTICIPLE			
Perf. coeptus.		1		1 3	ōsus.1	
Fut. coeptūri	us.				ōsūrus.	
eram, etc. Coe	ptus is Passi and $\bar{o}d\bar{i}$ are Passi anse of the Intuevi, 'I am v	ve in sens resent in aperfect a	e. sense; hence i nd Future. 1		ct and Fut ' Perfect o	ure Perfec f <i>nōscō</i> , 'to
_			ACH SYS	TEM WANT	TING.	
1. Āiō, I	say, say y	es.2				
Indic. Pres. ā	•	ais,3	,			āiunt.
	iēbam,			-ēbāmus,	-ēbātis,	-ēbant.4
Perf Subj. Pres		āiās,	•			āiant.
Imper. Pres. a		aras, _	arai,			alant.
Part. Pres. ā	. ,					
2. Inquan	n, I say.					
Indic. Pres. ir	nquam,	inquis,	inquit;	inquimus,	inquitis,	inquiunt
Imp			inquiebat;4			
Fut			inquiet;			
Perf. – Imper. Pres. in		inquīstī, . inquitō.	• .			
3. Fārī, te	o speak.5					
Indic. Pres			fātur;			
Fut. f			fābitur;			
	ātus sum,	•	est;	fātī sumus,		sunt.
	ātus eram,		erat;	fātī erāmus,		erant.
Subj. Perf. fa	,	,	sit;	fātī sīmus,	,	sint.
Imnon Pros f	ātus essem,	esses,	esset;	fātī essēmus,	essețis,	essent.

Perf. fātus.

Supine, Abl. fatū.

Ger. fandus.

Infin. Pres. fārī. Part. Pres. (fāns) fantis.

Gerund, Gen. and Abl. fandī, dō.

¹ Osus is Active in sense, hating, but is rare except in compounds: exosus, perosus.

² In this verb a and i do not form a diphthong; before a vowel the i has the sound of y: \bar{a} - $y\bar{o}$, \bar{a} -yunt; see 10, 4, 3).

³ The interrogative form aisne is often shortened into ain'.

⁴ Aībam, aībās, etc., occur; also inquībat for inquiebat.

⁵ Fārī is used chiefly in poetry. Compounds have some forms not found in the simple: adfāmur, adfāminī, adfābar; effāberis.

III. IMPERATIVES AND ISOLATED FORMS.

1.	IMPERATIVES.

havē, salvē, cedŏ,	havēte; salvēte, cette,	havētō; salvētō;²	Inf. havēre,¹ salvēre,	hail. hail. tell me, give me. begone.
apage,				vegone.

2. ISOLATED FORMS.

	INDICATION	VE.	Subju	NCTIVE.		
PR	RESENT.	FUTURE.	PRESENT.	IMPERFECT.	Infinitive	
cō	nfit; —		confiat;	confieret;	confieri,	to be done.
đĕ	fit, defiunt	defiet;	dēfīat;		dēfierī,	to be wanting.
īn	fit, infiunt,					to begin.
	Sub. Imp.	forem, for	rēs, foret, —	— fore	ent. Inf.	fore.3
	Ind. Pres.	ovat,	,	he rejoices.	Part	. ovāns.
	Ind. Pres.	ดาวลอรดิ. ดา	aesumus.4	T man.		

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

298. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English Impersonal with it: licet, it is lawful; oportet, it behooves. They are conjugated like other verbs, but are used only in the third person singular of the Indicative and Subjunctive, and in the Present and Perfect Infinitive.

299. The most important Impersonal Verbs are—

decet, decuit,	it becomes.6	piget, { piguit, pigitum est, } it grieves.
libet, { libuit, libitum est, }	it pleases.6	paenitet, paenituit, it causes re-
licet, { licuit, licitum est, }	it is lawful.6	gret.7
liquet, licuit,	it is evident.	pudet, { puduit, puditum est, } it shames.
miserét, miseritum est oportet, oportuit,	, it excites pity. ⁷ it behooves.	taedet, { faeduit, taesum est, } it wearies.8

- Participles are generally wanting, but a few occur, though with a somewhat
 modified sense: (1) from LIBET: libens, willing; (2) from LIGET: licens, free; licitus,
 allowed; (3) from Parniter: paenitens, penitent; paenitendus, to be repented of; (4)
 from PUDET: pudens, modest; pudendus, shameful.
- 2. GERUNDS are generally wanting, but occur in rare instances: paenitendum, pudendō.

¹ Also written avē, avēte, etc.

² The Future salvēbis is also used for the Imperative.

³ Forem = essem; fore = futurum esse; see 204, 2.

⁴ Old forms for quaero and quaerimus.

⁵ The subject is generally an infinitive or clause, but may be a noun or pronoun denoting a thing, but not a person: hoc fiert oportet, that this should be done is necessary.

⁶ These four occur in the third person plural, but without a personal subject.

⁷ Mē miseret, I pity; mē paenitet, I repent.

⁸ Also the compound, pertaedet, pertaesum est, it greatly wearies.

300. Generally Impersonal are several verbs which designate the changes of the weather, or the operations of nature:

Fulminat, it lightens; grandinat, it hails; lūcēscit, it grows light; pluit, it rains; rōrat, dew falls; tonat, it thunders.

301. Many other verbs are often used impersonally:

Accidit, it happens; appāret, it appears; constat, it is evident; contingit, it happens; dēlectat, it delights; dolet, it grieves; interest, it concerns; juvat, it delights; patet, it is plain; placet, it pleases; praestat, it is better; rēfert, it concerns.

1. In the Passive Voice intransitive verbs can be used only impersonally. The participle is then neuter:

Mihi crèditur, it is credited to me, I am believed; tibi crèditur, you are believed; crèditum est, it was believed; certatur, it is contended; curritur, there is running, people run; pūgnātur, it is fought, they, we, etc., fight; vīvitur, we, you, they live.

2. The Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (234) is often used impersonally. The

participle is then neuter:

Mihī scrībendum est, I must write; tibī scrībendum est, you must write; illī scrībendum est, he must write.

CHAPTER V.

PARTICLES.

302. The Latin has four parts of speech sometimes called *Particles*: the *Adverb*, the *Preposition*, the *Conjunction*, and the *Interjection*.

ADVERBS.

- 303. The Adverb is the part of speech which is used to qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs: celeriter currere, to run swiftly; tam celer, so swift; tam celeriter, so swiftly.
- 304. In their origin, Adverbs are mainly the oblique cases¹ of nouns, adjectives, participles, and pronouns.
 - I. Accusatives .- Many Adverbs were originally Accusatives:
- 1. Accusatives of Nouns: partim, partly; forās,¹ out of doors; diū¹ (for dium²), for a long time. Here belong numerous adverbs in tim and sim, chiefly from verbal nouns³ no longer in use:¹ contemptim, contemptuously;

¹ Some, indeed, are the oblique cases of words not otherwise used in Latin, and some are formed by means of case-endings no longer used in the regular declensions.

² Accusative of dius = dies.

³ Some adverbs in tim and sim are from adjectives: singulātim, one by one. In time doubtless tim, ātim, sim, and im came to be regarded simply as adverbial suffixes, and were so used in forming new adverbs.

sēnsim, perceptibly, slowly; raptim, hastily; statim, steadily; fūrtim, by stealth.

- 2. Accusatives of Nouns with Prepositions: ad-modum, very, to the full measure; in-vicem, in turn; in-cassum, in vain; ob-iter, on the road, in passing; ob-viam, in the way, against; post-modum, after a short time; inter-diw1 and inter-dius,1 during the day; inter-dum,1 during the time, in the mean time.
 - 3. Accusatives of Adjectives:
- 1) Neuters in um, a, e, us, is: sōlum, only; multum, multa, much; nimium, too much; parum, little; secundum, secondly; cēterum,² cētera, as to the rest; vērum,² truly; abunde,³ abundantly; facile, easily; saepe,⁴ often; plūs, more; minus, less; saepius, more frequently; magis, more, rather.⁵
- 2) Feminines in am, ās: bifāriam, in two parts; multifāriam, in many parts; clam = calam, secretly; palam, openly; perperam, wrongly; aliās, otherwise.
- 4. Accusatives of Pronouns: quam, how much; tam, to much; tum, then; tun-c, at that time; nun-c, now.
 - II. ABLATIVES .- Many Adverbs were originally Ablatives:
- 1. Ablatives of Nouss in \bar{o} , e, $\bar{i}s$: $erg\bar{o}$, accordingly; * numer \bar{o} , exactly; forte, by chance; $j\bar{u}re$, rightly; sponte, willingly; grātiīs, or grātīs, gratuitously; forīs, out of doors.

Note.—The ablative is sometimes accompanied by a preposition or by an adjective: ex-templō, immediately—lit., from the moment; īlico for in locō, on the spot; quotannīs, yearly; multi-modīs, in many ways; ho-diē (hōc-diē), to-day; quā-rē, wherefore, by which thing.

- 2. Ablatives of Adjectives and Participles in \bar{a} , Feminine, \bar{o} , \bar{e} , o and \bar{i} , Neuter: $dextr\bar{a}^{10} = dexter\bar{a}$, on the right; $extr\bar{a}^{,11}$ on the outside; $infr\bar{a}^{,11}$ on the under side; $intr\bar{a}$, on the inside;— $intr\bar{o}$, within; $\bar{u}ltr\bar{o}$, beyond; $perpetu\bar{o}$, continually; $r\bar{a}r\bar{o}$, rarely; $subit\bar{o}$, suddenly; $auspic\bar{a}t\bar{o}$, after taking the aus-
- ¹ Diū and dum are explained as forms of dium = diem, and dius as for diēs; see Corssen, I., pp. 232-236; II., 453.
- ² Often becoming conjunctions—cēterum, but. Nõn, from ne-ānum, also belongs here.
 - 3 From obsolete abundis.
 - 4 Here may be added semel, 'once,' and simul, 'at the same time,' both for simile.
- ⁵ Secus, 'otherwise'; tenus, 'as far as'; protinus, 'straightforward'; and versus, 'toward,' doubtless belong here.
 - 6 Originally partem or viam may have been used.
- ⁷ Quam, from stem qua, in quī, quae; tam, tum, from stem ta, to, in the final syllable of iste, for is-tu-s, is-ta; tun-c = tum-ce, nun-c = num-ce, in which num is from the stem no, seen also in num, 'whether,' and also in its original form, na, in nam, 'for.'
 - 8 Literally, by the deed. Compare Greek ἔργον, ἔργφ.
- ⁹ That \tilde{e} is here an ablative ending is proved by the fact that it appears in early Latin in the form of $\tilde{e}d$, an undoubted ablative ending.
 - 10 With these feminines, parte or viā may have been originally used.
- ¹¹ Often becoming prepositions. In fact, all prepositions in \bar{a} are derived from adverbs which were originally ablatives in $\bar{a}d$, afterward \bar{a} .

pices; cōnsultō, after deliberating; sortītō, by lot, i. e., after casting lots;—dōctē, learnedly; līberē, freely; certē,¹ surely; rēctē, rightly; vērē, truly;—dōctissimē, most skillfully; māximē,² especially;—brevē, briefly.

3. ABLATIVES OF PRONOUNS: $e\bar{a}$, there, in that way; $h\bar{a}c$, here, in this way; $qu\bar{a}$, where, in which way; $e\bar{a}dem$, by the same road, in the same way.

Note.—Several pronominal adverbs denote direction toward a point: $e\bar{o}$, to that place; $\hbar\bar{o}c$, $\hbar\bar{u}c$, to this place; 3 $\ell ll\bar{o}$, $\ell ll\bar{o}$ -c, $\ell ll\bar{u}$ -c, to that place; $ist\bar{o}$, $ist\bar{o}$ -c, $ist\bar{u}$ -c, to the place where you are; $qu\bar{o}$, to which place.

III. LOCATIVES .- Some Adverbs were originally Locatives:

1. LOCATIVES OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES in $\tilde{\imath}$ or $\tilde{\imath}$: her $\tilde{\imath}$, yesterday; temper $\tilde{\imath}$, in time; vesper $\tilde{\imath}$, in the evening; peregr $\tilde{\imath}$, or peregr $\tilde{\imath}$, in a foreign land.

2. LOCATIVES OF PRONOUNS: $\hbar \bar{\iota} c_i^4$ here; $ill \bar{\iota} c_i^4$ there; $is l \bar{\iota} c_i$ there where you are; $s \bar{\iota} c_i$ in this way, thus; $u t \bar{\iota}_i^5 u t_i$ in which way; $ib \bar{\iota}_i^6$ there; $ub \bar{\iota}_i$ where.

Note.—Locative forms in *im* also occur: $\bar{o}lim$, formerly; utrim-que, on both sides; illim, illin-c, from that place; hin-c, from this place; often with $d\bar{e}: utrin$ -de, from both sides; in-de, from that point, thence.

IV. Adverbs in tus and ter.—Adverbs are also formed by means of the endings tus 7 and ter:7

Fundi-tus, from the foundation; $r\bar{a}d\bar{i}ci$ -tus, from the roots, utterly; $d\bar{i}v\bar{i}ni$ -tus, by divine appointment, divinely; forti-ter, bravely; $\bar{a}cri$ -ter, sharply; $d\bar{u}ri$ -ter, harshly; $\bar{e}legan$ -ter, elegantly; aman-ter, lovingly; $pr\bar{u}den$ -ter, prudently.

Note 1.—The stem-vowel before tus becomes i, and consonant stems assume i: fundi-tus, s radic-i-tus. The stem-vowel before ter also becomes i: $d\bar{u}ri-ter$. Consonant stems, however, do not assume i, but drop final t: amant-ter, aman-ter.

Note 2.—Many adverbs are simply adverbial phrases or clauses whose parts have become united in writing. In these compound forms prepositions

¹ As \tilde{e} is an ablative ending, $cert\tilde{o}$ and $cert\tilde{e}$ are only different forms of the same word; so also $r\tilde{e}ct\tilde{o}$ and $r\tilde{e}ct\tilde{e}$, $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{o}$ and $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{e}$, though the two forms do not always have precisely the same meaning: $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{o}$, in truth; $v\tilde{e}r\tilde{e}$, truly.

² This is the regular ending in superlatives.

³ These are sometimes explained as *Datives*, but they are probably *Ablatives*; *illō*, lit., by that way or road, finally came to mean to that place, i. e., to the place to which the road leads.

⁴ Here the Locative ending is $\bar{\imath}:h\bar{\imath},\,iU\bar{\imath},\,ist\bar{\imath},\,s\bar{\imath};\,c$ for ce is a demonstrative ending, meaning here. Sic is the Locative of sa; see 313, foot-note.

⁵ Uti contains two stems—u or cu (seen in cui), and ta or to (seen in te in is-te).

⁶ In $ib\tilde{i}$ and $ub\tilde{i}$ the ending is $b\tilde{i}$; i in $ib\tilde{i}$ is the stem of is, he; u in $ub\tilde{i}$ is the same as in $ut\tilde{i}$.

⁷ Seen also in *in-ter*, in the midst; *in-tus*, within; *sub-ter* and *sub-tus*, below. These suffixes are of uncertain origin; the former appears to be a case-suffix with ablative meaning, no longer used in declension; the latter, like *ter* in *al-ter*, *nos-ter*, and *dex-ter*, has lost its case-suffix, and may therefore represent either *terō* with an ablative suffix, or *terum* with an accusative suffix. See Corssen, II., p. 290; Kühner, I., p. 679.

⁸ The stem-vowel o is changed to i.

are especially common, and sometimes seem to be used with cases with which they do not otherwise occur: $ant-e\bar{a}$, before, before that; $inter-e\bar{a}$, in the mean time; $post-e\bar{a}$, after; $ante-h\bar{a}c$, before this; quem-ad-modum, in what manner; parum-per, for a while; $n\bar{u}-per=novum-per$, lately; $tant\bar{v}-per$, for so long a time; $vid\bar{v}licet=vid\bar{v}re$ licet, clearly—lit., 'it is permitted to see'; $sc\bar{v}licet=sc\bar{v}re$ licet, certainly; forsitan=fors sit an, perhaps.

305. Many Pronominal Adverbs, like the pronouns from which they are formed (191), are correlatives of each other, as will be seen in the following

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES.

Interrogative.	Indefinite.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.
	I. Place in	N WHICH.	
ubž, where ? 2	alicubi, somewhere; uspiam, usquam, anywhere; ubivīs, where you please.	hīc, here; istīc, there; illīc, there; illīc, there; ibī, there.	ubž, where.
	II. Place	ro which.	
$quar{o}$, whither?	aliquō, to some place; quōlibet, quōvīs, whith- er you please.	hūc, to this place; istūc, to that place; illūc, to that place; eō, to that place; eōdem, to the same place.	$quar{o}$, whither.
quōrsum,4 to what place? to what end?	aliquō-vorsum,4 to some place.	hörsum,4 to this place.	quorsum, to which place or end.
	III. PLACE F	ROM WHICH.	
unde, whence?	alicunde, from some place; undelibet, from any place.		

¹ Some scholars, regarding $e\bar{a}$ and $\hbar\bar{a}c$ in these and similar cases as ablatives, think that all such compounds had their origin at a time when ante, post, inter, etc., admitted that case; but Corssen treats $e\bar{a}$ and $\hbar\bar{a}c$ in all such cases as neuters in the accusative plural. See Corssen, II., p. 455; Bücheler, p. 32.

² Observe that the question ubi, 'where?' may be answered indefinitely by alicubi, uspiam, etc., or definitely by a demonstrative either alone or with a relative: hic, 'here'; hic, ubi, 'here, where.'

³ Hīc, 'here,' 'near me'; istīc, 'there,' 'near you'; illīc, 'there,' 'near him'; ibī, 'there,' a weak demonstrative and the most common correlative of ubī, 'where.' See distinction in pronouns (191). A similar distinction exists in hūc, istūc, illūc, and eō.

⁴ For quō-vorsum = quō-versum, 'whither turned'; aliquō-vorsum, hūc-vorsum.

TABLE OF CORRELATIVES .- (Continued.)

INTERROGATIVE.	Indefinite.	DEMONSTRATIVE.	RELATIVE.
	IV. T	IME.	
quandō, when? quotiēns, how often?	quandō, aliquandō, unquam, at any time. aliquotièns, somewhat often.	nunc, now; tum, then; tunc, at that very time; ibž, then. totiens, so often.	quom, cum quum, when. quotiens, as, as often.
	V. WAY, MAN	ner, Degree.	
quā, by or in what way?	aliquā, by or in some way; quāvīs, by any way.	hāc, by this way; istāc, by that way; illāc, by that way; eā, by that way; eā- dem, by the same way.	quā, by which way.
ut, utī, how?	aliquā, in some way, etc.	ita, sīc, so, thus.	ut, utī, ir which way, as
quam, how much?	aliquam, somewhat.	tam, so much.	quam, as.

Note 1.—From Relative Adverbs are formed General or Indefinite Relatives by appending -cumque or by reduplicating the form: ubicumque, ubiubi, wheresoever; quōcumque, quōquō, whithersoever.

Note 2.—Other examples are—

- 1) Place:—alibī, elsewhere; ibīdem, in the same place; necubi, lest anywhere, that nowhere; elcubi, if anywhere; alib, to another place; citrō, to this side; alitrō citrōque, to and fro; utrōque, to both places; aliunde, from another place; indidem, from the same place; utrimque, from or on both sides; undique, from all sides.
- 2) TME:—hodie, to-day; herī, yesterday; crās, to-morrow; prīdie, the day before; postrīdie, the day after; jam, already; jam tum, even then; jamdūū, jamdūdum, jamprīdem, long ago; quondam, at a certain time; īlim, formerly, hereafter; interim, intereā, meanwhile; anteā, prius, before; post, posteā, afterward; unquam, ever; nūnquam, never; semper, at all times.
- 3) WAY, MANNER, DEGREE:—adeō, so; aliter, otherwise; magis, more; paene, almost; palam, openly; prōrsus, wholly; rīte, rightly; valdē, greatly; vīx, scarcely.
- 4) Cause: cūr, why; eō, for this reason; ideō, idcircō, proptereā, on this account; ergō, igitur, itaque, therefore, accordingly.

Note 3.—Nesciŏ, with an interrogative adverb, is often equivalent to an indefinite adverb: nesciŏ quomodo, I know not in what way = quodammodo, in some way; nesciŏ $ub\bar{b} = alicub\bar{b}$, in some place; nesciŏ unde=alicunde, from some place; see also 191, note.

Note 4.—Adverbial phrases are formed by combining mirum or nimium with quantum: mirum quantum, it is wonderful how much = wonderfully much, wonderfully; nimium quantum, exceedingly. Mirum quam, sane quam, and valde quam have a similar force: how wonderfully, how very, how greatly = exceedingly, wonderfully.

Note 5 .- For Interrogative Particles, see 311, 8.

Note 6 .- For Negative Particles, see 552.

306. Comparison.—Most adverbs are derived from adjectives, and are dependent upon them for their comparison. The comparative is the accusative neuter singular of the adjective, and the superlative changes the ending us of the adjective into ē:

altus,	altior,	altissimus,	lofty.
altē,	altius,	altissimē,	loftily.
prūdēns,	prūdentior,	prūdentissimus,	prudent.
prūdenter,	prūdentius,	prūdentissimē,	prudently.

1. When the adjective is compared with magis and $m\bar{a}xim\bar{e}$, the adverb is compared in the same way:

ēgregius,	magis ēgregius,	māximē ēgregius,	excellent.
ēgregiē,	magis ēgregiē,	māximē ēgregiē,	excellently.

2. When the adjective is irregular, the adverb has the same irregularity:

bonus,	melior,	optimus,	good.
bene,	melius,	optimē,	well.
male,	pējus,	pessimē,	badly.
,	1 0 /	1	

3. When the adjective is defective, the adverb is generally defective:

	dēterior,	dēterrimus,	worse.
	dēterius,	dēterrimē,	worse.
novus,	***********	novissimus,	new.
novē,	-	novissimē,	newly.

4. A few not derived from adjectives are compared:

diū,	diūtius,	diūtissimē,	for a long time.
saepe,	saepius,	saepissimē,	often.
satis,	satius,		sufficiently.
nuper,		nūperrimē,	recently.

- 5. Most adverbs not derived from adjectives, as also those from adjectives incapable of comparison (169), are not compared: hīc, here; nunc, now; vulgāriter, commonly.
- 6. Superlatives in \bar{o} or um are used in a few adverbs: $pr\bar{i}m\bar{o}$, $pr\bar{i}mum$, potissimum.

PREPOSITIONS.

307. The Preposition is the part of speech which shows the relations of objects to each other:

In Îtalia esse, to be in Italy; ante me, before me.

Note 1.—Prepositions were originally adverbs, and, like other adverbs (304), are in origin petrified case-forms.²

¹ See 304, II., 2.

² Thus prepositions in $\bar{\alpha}$ are in origin ablatives: $circ\bar{a}$, $cirt\bar{a}$, $contr\bar{a}$, $erg\bar{a}$, $extr\bar{a}$, $infr\bar{a}$, etc; while those in m are accusatives: circum, $c\bar{c}ram$, eum, etc. These caseforms passed into adverbs denoting direction, situation, etc.; but they finally became associated with nouns in the accusative or ablative as auxiliary to the case-ending: $loc\bar{o}$

Note 2.—For the Use of Prepositions, see 432-437.

Note 3 .- For the Form and Meaning of Prepositions in Composition, see 344, 5.

308. Inseparable Prepositions. — Ambi, amb, 'around,' 'about'; dis, dī, 'asunder'; in, 'not,' 'un-'; por, 'toward,' 'forth'; re, red, 'back'; sē, sēd, 'aside,' 'apart'; and vē, 'not,' are called Inseparable Prepositions, because they are used only in composition.

Note.—For the Form and Meaning of the Inseparable Prepositions in Composition, see ${\bf 344}, {\bf 6}.$

CONJUNCTIONS.

- 309. Conjunctions are mere connectives. They are either Co-ordinate or Subordinate.
 - 1. Coördinate Conjunctions connect similar constructions:

Labor voluptāsque, labor and pleasure. Karthāginem cēpit āc 2 dīruit, he took and destroyed Carthage.

2. Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions:

Haec DUM 2 colligunt, effugit, WHILE they collect these things, he escapes.

- 310. Coördinate Conjunctions comprise—
- 1. COPULATIVE CONJUNCTIONS, denoting UNION:

Et, que, atque, 3 āc, and; etiam, quoque, also; neque, nec, and not; neque—neque, nec-nec, neque—nec, neither—nor.

2. Disjunctive Conjunctions, denoting separation:

Aut, 4 vel, ve, sive (seu), or; aut—aut, vel—vel, either—or; sive—sive, either—or.

Note.—Here belong interrogative particles in double or disjunctive questions: utrum, num, or ne—an, whether—or; an, or; annon, necne, or not; see 353.

3. Adversative Conjunctions, denoting opposition:

= From a place; ex locō = out of a place; aliquid locō movēre, to move anything from a place; aliquid ex locō movēre, to move anything out of a place. An adverb thus separated from the verb and brought into connection with a noun ceased to be an adverb and became a preposition.

¹ Like other prepositions, these were doubtless originally case-forms.

² Thus que connects two nominatives, āc two indicatives which are entirely coördinate, took and destroyed, but dum connects the subordinate clause, haec—colliquint, with the principal clause, effugit—he escapes while they collect these things.

³ Copulative conjunctions are $et = \text{Greek } \check{\epsilon}\tau$, $que = \kappa ai$, and their compounds—et-iam or et-jam, at-que, que-que, ne-que. Ac is a shortened form of at-que; ne-que, ne-que.

4 Disjunctives are aut, vel, ve, with their compounds: $vel = vel\bar{\imath}s$, 'should you wish,' offering a choice, $ve = v\bar{\imath}s$, 'you wish,' as in $qu\bar{\imath}-v\bar{\imath}s$, 'any you please'; $s\bar{\imath}ve = s\bar{\imath}v\bar{\imath}s$, 'if you wish.'

Sed, autem, vērum, vērō, but; at, but, on the contrary; atquī, rather; cēterum, but still, moreover; tamen, yet.

4. Illative Conjunctions, denoting inference:

Ergō, igitur, inde, proinde, itaque, hence, therefore; see also 554, IV., 2.

5. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting CAUSE:

Nam, namque, enim, etenim, for.3

311. Subordinate Conjunctions comprise—

1. Temporal Conjunctions, denoting time:

Quandō, quom, 4 cum, or quum, when; ut, ubĭ, as, when; cum (quom or quum) prīmum, ut prīmum, ubĭ prīmum, simul, simulāc, simul āc, simulatque, simul atque, as soon as; dum, dōnec, quoad, quamdiū, 6 while, until, as long as; antequam, priusquam, before; posteāquam, after.

2. Comparative Conjunctions, denoting comparison:

Ut, utī, sīcut, sīcuti, as, so as; velut, just as; praeut, prout, according as, in comparison with; quam, as; tanquam, quasi, ut sī, āc sī, velut sī, as if.

3. CONDITIONAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting condition:

Sĩ, c if; sĩ nôn, nisi, nĩ, if not; sĩn, but if; sĩ quidem, if indeed; sĩ modo, dum modo, dummodo, if only, provided.

4. Concessive Conjunctions, denoting concession:

Quamquam, licet, cum (quom, quum), although; etsī, tametsī, etiamsī, even if; quamvīs, quantumvīs, quantumlibet, however much, although; ut, grant that; nē, grant that not.

5. Final Conjunctions, denoting purpose or end:

Ut, utī, that, in order that; nē, nēve (neu), that not; quō, that; quōminus, that not.

6. Consecutive Conjunctions, denoting consequence or result:

Ut, so that; ut non, quin, so that not.

³ But most Causal Conjunctions are subordinate; see 311, 7.

⁶ Probably locative, possibly instrumental; see page 73, foot-note 2.

¹ Conjunctions, like adverbs, consist largely of case-forms, chiefly from pronominal stems. Thus, sed, vērō, ergō, etc., are explained as ablatives (sed from suī); autem, vērum, cēterum, quam, quod, quom, or cum, etc., as accusatives; que, ubĭ, utī, ut, etc., as locatives.

² Lit., as to the rest.

⁴ Quom, the original form out of which cum and quum were developed (22; 26, foot-note), occurs in early Latin, as in Plautus. Cum is the approved form in classical Latin.

⁵ See 304, I., 1 and 2, foot-notes.

⁷ Licet is strictly a verb, meaning it is permitted; vis, in quam-vis and quantum-vis, is also a verb: quam-vis, 'as much as you wish'; as is also libet, 'it pleases,' in quantum-libet, 'as much as is pleasing.'

⁸ Quōminus = quō minus, 'by which less'; quīn = quī nē, 'by which not.'

7. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS, denoting CAUSE:

Quia, quod, quoniam, quandō, because, inasmuch as; cum (quom, quum), since; quandōquidem, siquidem, utpote, since indeed.

8. Interrogative Conjunctions, denoting inquiry:3

Ne, nonne, num, utrum, an, whether; an non, necne, or not.

INTERJECTIONS.

- 312. Interjections are certain particles used as expressions of feeling or as mere marks of address. They may express—
 - 1. Astonishment: ō, hem, ehem, atat, bubae, vāh, ēn, ecce.

2. Joy: iō, ēvoe, euge, ēja, ō, papae.

3. Sorrow: vae, ei, heu, ēheu, ŏhē, āh, au, prō.

4. Disgust: aha, phy, apage.

- 5. Calling: heus, ō, eho, ehodum.
- 6. Praise: eu, euge, ēja, hēja.

CHAPTER VI.

FORMATION OF WORDS.

SECTION I.

ROOTS.-STEMS.-SUFFIXES.

313. Words are formed from stems (46, 1), and stems from roots or from other stems.

Note 1.—Thus status, 'position,' is formed from the stem statu by adding the nominative suffix s, but the stem statu is itself formed from the root sta by appending the derivative suffix tu.

¹ Compounded of quom-jam, when now.

² Lit., if indeed.

³ These are sometimes classed as *Adverbs*. In some of their uses they are plainly *Conjunctions*, while in other cases they approach closely to the nature of *Adverbs*. As a matter of convenience they may be called *Interrogative Particles*; see 351, 1.

⁴ Some interjections seem to be the simple and natural utterance of feeling, and accordingly do not appear to have been built up, like other words, from roots and stems, but to be themselves specimens of the unorganized elements of human speech. Others, however, are either inflected forms, as age, 'come,' $apage = \tilde{a}\pi aye$, 'begone,' or mutilated sentences or clauses: $mehercul\tilde{e}s$, mehercule, etc., $= m\tilde{e}$ Hercule's juvet, 'may Hercules protect me'; $m\tilde{e}aast\tilde{o}r$, 'may Castor protect me'; $m\tilde{e}dius$, fidius, 'may the true God help me'; $\tilde{e}cast\tilde{o}r = \tilde{e}n$ Castor,' lo Castor.'

⁶ This s is doubtless a remnant of an old demonstrative, sa, meaning that, he, she.

Note 2 .- Words are either simple or compound :

- 1. Simple, when formed from single roots with or without suffixes.
- 2. Compound, when formed by the union of two or more roots or stems; see 340, III.
- 314. Roots.—Roots are the primitive elements out of which all words in our family of languages have been formed.¹ They are of two kinds:
- I. Predicative Roots, also called Verbal Roots.² These designate or name objects, actions, or qualities: es in es-t, he is; i in \bar{i} -re, to go; duc in duc-s = dux, leader; doc in doc-ilis, docile.
- II. DEMONSTRATIVE ROOTS,³ also called Pronominal Roots. These do not name objects or actions, but simply point out the relation of such objects or actions to the speaker: me in $me\bar{\imath}$, of me; tu in $tu\bar{\imath}$, of you; i in is, that, that one, he.
- 315. The STEMS of simple words may be divided into three classes: Root Stems, Primary Stems, and Secondary Stems.
- 316. Root Stems are either identical with roots, or are formed from them without the aid of suffixes:

Duc-is, 'of a leader,' root-stem duc; 's es-tis, 'you are,' root-stem es; rēg-ēs, 'kings,' root-stem rēg; vōc-is, 'of the voice,' root-stem vōc; murmur-is, 'of a murmur,' root-stem murmur.

317. PRIMARY STEMS are formed from roots by means of suffixes: 6

¹ These roots were probably all monosyllabic, and were once used separately as words, but not as parts of speech. Thus es, the root of sum, esse, 'to be,' and i, the root of eŏ, 'ire, 'to go,' were doubtless used in their original form, as significant words, long before the verbs themselves had an existence.

² Observe that from this class of roots, whether called *Predicative* or *Verbal*, may be formed the stems, not only of verbs, but also of nouns, adjectives, and, in fact of all the parts of speech except pronouns.

The learner should note the difference in signification between *Predicative* and *Demonstrative* Roots. Thus *duw* has a definite meaning, and must always designate *one who leads*; while the pronoun *ego* is not the name of any person or thing, but may be used by any and every person in speaking of himself.

⁴ The learner has already become familiar with the use of stems in the inflection of nouns, adjectives, etc.; but stems, like roots, were probably once used as words.

⁵ The basis of every inflected word is a stem. Duc is therefore the stem of duc-is, but as it can not be derived from a more primitive form, it is also a root. According to some authorities, $r\bar{e}g$, the stem of $r\bar{e}g$ - $\bar{e}s$, and $v\bar{o}c$, the stem of $v\bar{o}c$ - $\bar{e}s$, are not roots, but derived from more primitive forms—reg in reg- \bar{o} , and voe in voe- \bar{o} ; according to other authorities, however, reg and $r\bar{e}g$ are only two forms of the same root; so also voe and $v\bar{o}c$, duc and $d\bar{u}c$. The stem murmur is not a root, but formed from the root mur by reduplication. See Curtius, Chron., p. 25; Schleicher, pp. 341–350; Meyer, pp. 8, 371–376.

⁶ Any suffix used to form a Primary Stem is called a Primary Suffix; see 320.

Root.	SUFFIX.	STEM.	Word.	
ar,	vo,	ar-vo,	ar-vu-m,1	field.
fac,	to,	fac-to,	fac-tu-s,1	made.
sta,	tu,	sta-tu,	sta-tu-s,	position.

Note.—All stems formed from verb-stems are also generally classed as *Primary Stems:* ² cūrā-tor, 'guardian,' 'curator,' from cūrō, 'to care for,' from cūra, 'care.'

318. Secondary Stems are formed from other stems 3 by means of suffixes: 4

STEM.	SUFFIX.	SECONDARY STEM.	Word.	
cīvi,5	co;	cīvi-co,	cīvicus,	civic.
vīctōr,5	iă;	vīctor-iă,	vīctōria,	victory.
vīctōr,	īc;	vīctor-ic,	vīctrīx,6	victress.

319. The STEMS OF COMPOUND WORDS are formed by the union of two or more stems, or of a stem with a root:

fu-erā,7	fu-erā-s,	you had been.
grand-aevo,8	grand-aevu-s,	of great age.
igni-color,9	igni-color,	fire-colored.
māgn-animo,10	māgn-animu-s,	great-souled.

Note 1.—Words are formed from Stems by means of the Suffixes of Inflection; see 46 and 202, note 1.

Note 2.—A single root often gives rise to a large class of forms. Thus, from the root sta, 'to stand,' are derived—

1. The numerous forms which make up the conjugation of the verb stö, stäre, steti, stätum, to stand.

2. All the forms of the verb sisto, sistere, stitī, statum, 'to place.'

8. Numerous other forms. Thus (1), sta-bilis, 'stable,' 'firm,' from which are derived stabilito,' to make firm'; stabilitūs, 'firmness,' and stabiliter, 'firmly'; (2) stabilitum, 'a standing place,' 'stable,' from which are derived stabilū, and stabilor, 'to have a standing place'; (3) stāmen, 'something standing,' 'warp in an upright loom'; (4) statim, 'in standing,' 'at once'; (5) statiš, 'standing'; (6) statīvus, 'stationary'; (7) stator, 'a stayer'; and (8) status, 'position,' from which is derived statuō, 'to place,' which in turn becomes the basis of statua, 'a statue,' and statūra, 'stature.'

¹ Ar-vo-m weakened to arvum, fac-to-s to factus; see 22, 2.

² This is a matter of convenience, as new stems, or words, are formed from verb-stems in the same manner as from roots; see Schleicher, p. 347.

³ Except verb-stems. Remember that stems formed from verb-stems are treated as Primary; see 317, note.

⁴ Any suffix used to form a Secondary stem is called a Secondary suffix, but many suffixes may be either primary or secondary. Thus co in civicus is Secondary, as it is added to a stem; but in locus, 'place,' it is Primary, as it is added to a root.

⁵ Cīvi is the stem of cīvis, citizen; vīctor of vīctor, conqueror.

⁶ For victoria, by contraction.

⁷ Compounded of root fu with stem $er\tilde{a}$ from the root es; see 203, note 2, and 243.

⁸ For grandi-aevo.

⁹ Compounded of *igni*, the stem of *ignis*, 'fire,' and of *color*, the stem of *color*, 'color.'

¹⁰ Compounded of magno, the stem of magnus, 'great,' and of animo, the stem of animus, 'soul'; magno-animo becoming magnanimo.

320. Suffixes.—Most suffixes appear to have been formed from a comparatively small number of primitive elements called

PRIMARY SUFFIXES.

I.	II.2	Examples.
а,	ă,3 o, ē, e, i, ŏ, u,	ă and o in nouns and adjectives, ē in nouns, and e, i, ŏ, and u in verbs: scrib-a, writer fug-a, flight; jug-o, Nom. jug-u-m,4 yoke fid-ē, Nom. fid-ē-s, faith; reg-e,° rule thou reg-i-s, you rule; reg-ō, I rule; reg-u-nt, they rule.
i,	i,	in a few nouns: $av-i$, Nom. $av-i-s$, bird; $arc-i$, Nom. $arc-i-s$, $arc-s$, e arx , citadel.
u,	u,	in nouns:7 ac-u, Nom. ac-u-s, needle.
an,	on, ōn, en, in,	denoting either the act or the agent; asperg- on, Nom. aspergö ⁸ (G. inis), sprinkling; ger ōn, gerö ⁸ (G. ōnis), a carrier; pect-en (G. inis) a comb.
ant,9	ent, unt,	in present participles: 10 audient-s, 10 audiens hearing; ab-es-ent-s, ab-sēns, absent; amā- ent-s, amāns, loving.

1 Most suffixes appear to be of pronominal origin, i. e., from pronominal stems or roots, but, according to Bopp, Corssen, and others, a few may be of verbal origin. Thus in several suffixes beginning with b—seen in ber, bilis, bulum, etc.—Corssen recognizes the root bhar = fer in fer-o, 'to bear'; in some beginning with t—seen in ter, tor, tūrus, etc.—the root tar, 'to accomplish'; in some beginning with c—seen in cer, culum, crum, etc.—the root kar = cer, cre in cre-o, 'to make.' For a discussion of the subject, see Bopp, III., pp. 186-201; Corssen, I., p. 567; II., pp. 40, 68; Schleicher, p. 443.

² Column I. shows the suffix in its supposed original form, while column II. shows the various forms which the suffix has assumed in Latin.

3 Originally long in Latin in feminine forms; see 21, 2, 1).

4 Observe that these suffixes form stems, not cases. Sometimes the Nominative Singular is in form identical with the stem; but in most cases, the Nominative is formed from the stem by adding the Nominative suffix, as s in $fid\bar{e}$ -s, m in jugu-m for jugo-m (o weakened to u, 22, 2).

⁵ Observe that the Present stem takes the several forms, reg-e, reg-i, reg-u; but see page 118, foot-note 5.

6 Often thus dropped; sometimes changed to e, ē: mari, mare, sea; caedi, caede, caedê-s, slaughter.

⁷ Also in adjectives, in union with i making ui: ten-ui-s, thin.

8 N dropped; see 36, 5, 3).

⁹ This is the base of several compound suffixes: ent-o, ent-i\(\delta\), ent-io—Nom. ent-um, ent-ia, and ent-ium; flu-ent-um, stream; sapi-ent-ia, wisdom; sil-ent-ium, silonce.

10 Also in a few adjectives and nouns: frequent-s, frequents, frequent; pari-ent-s, parëns. Here s is the Nominative ending.

PRIMARY SUFFIXES.—(Continued.)

- I.	II.	EXAMPLES.
as,	os, us, es,¹ ēs, ōr, ur,	gen-os, gen-us, birth; corp-us, body; nūb-ēs, cloud; rōb-ur, strength; sop-or (21, 2), sleep.
$\mathbf{ja}^4 = ya,$	iă,⁵ io, iē,	iă and io in adjectives; iē in nouns: ex-im-iă, ex-im-io, Nom. ex-im-iu-s, ex-im-ia, ex-im- iu-m, select; fac-iē, Nom. fac-iē-s, appear- ance.
$\mathbf{ja}^6 = ya,$	e, i, iŏ, iu,	in verbs: cap-e, take thou; cap-e-re, to take; cap-i-s, you take; cap-i-mus, we take; cap-i\(\delta\), I take; cap-iu-nt, they take.
jans 7 = yans,	iōs, iŏr, ius, jŏr, ŏr,	in comparatives: mag-iōs, mag-iōr, mā-jōr, Nom. mā-jor (21, 2), greater; min-ōr, min-or (21, 2), smaller; see 162, 165.
ka,	că, co,	rare: 8 pau-că, pau-co, pau-cus, a, um, small; lo-co, locus, place.
la,	lă, lo, li,	see ra.
ma,9	mă, mo,	for-ma, form; pri-mo, pri-mus, first; sup-mo, sum-mo (34, 3), sum-mus, highest; al-mo, al-mus, cherishing.

¹ This suffix seems to be used in forming the Latin Infinitive, in origin the Dative of a verbal noun: reg-es-e, reg-ere (31, 1), 'to rule'—lit., for ruling; e is the Dative ending (67, note); see Schleicher, p. 472. See also page 81, foot-note 2.

² With variable vowel (5.7, 2); in early Latin o, in classical Latin u in Nominative Singular, e in other cases. We thus have in early Latin os in gen-os, and in classical Latin us in gen-us, and es changed to er (31, 1) in gen-er-is, gen-er-i, etc. Words of this class take no Nominative ending.

3 With variable vowel—o, u. We thus have corp-us, corp-or-is, with s changed to r (31, 1). S final is also changed to r in $r\bar{o}bur$; see 31, 2.

⁴ Doubtless a pronominal stem. It is common as a secondary suffix (page 154, footnote 4): pater-io, patr-io, Nom. patr-ius, paternal; vīctōr-ia, victory; lūxur-ia, lūx-ur-iēs, luxury; see 325.

⁵ Originally long in Latin, see 21, 2, 1).

⁶ Probably the verbal root ja, identical with i in ire, to go. So explained by Curtius, Verburn, I., pp. 290-295. Ja was also used as a secondary suffix, appended to the stems of nouns and adjectives, in forming denominative verbs; see 335, foot-note.

⁷ This suffix is generally secondary: alt-ior, alt-ius, higher; sapient-ior, wiser; see 162.

⁸ It seems to appear without its final vowel in some nouns in x: ape-c-s, apex, point, top. It is common as a secondary suffix: civi-co, civi-cus, civic (330); and is also used in compound suffixes, as cu-lo, ci-no, ti-co: fios-cu-lus, a small flower; vait-ci-nus, prophetic. See Schleicher, p. 478; Corssen, II., pp. 205, 306, 307.

9 This is also an element in ti-mă, ti-mo, si-mă, si-mo, is-si-mă, is-si-mo: op-ti-

mus, a, um, best; alt-is-si-mus, highest.

PRIMARY SUFFIXES .- (Continued.)

I.	II.	EXAMPLES.
man,¹	men,² min,² mōn,	denoting the Means of the action, sometimes the act itself, or its result: tegi-men, or tegmen, 2 a covering; nō-men, 3 name; certā-men, contest; ser-mōn, ser-mō, 4 discourse.
na, ⁵	nă, no,	 in adjectives with the force of perfect participles: ⁵ plēnā, plē-no, plē-nus, a, um, filled, full; rēg-no, rēg-num, kingdom, that which is ruled. in nouns and adjectives with various meanings: ⁶ sop-no, som-no (33, 3, note), som-nus, sleep.
ni,	ni, ⁷	ig-ni, ig-nis, fire; pā-ni, pā-nis, bread.
nu,	nu,	very rare: ma-nu, ma-nus, hand.
ra, ⁸ la,	ră, ro, lă, lo, li,	ag-ro (agrus), ager, field; sac-ro (sac-rus), sacer, sac-ra, sac-rum, sacred; sed-lå, sel-la (34, 2), seat; candè-la, a light; tè-lo, tè-lum, weapon; doci-li, doci-lis, docile.
ta,9	tă, to, să, so,	1. in perfect participles: 10 amā-tŏ, amā-tus, a, um, loved; plaud-to, plau-so (35, 3), plau-sus, applauded; cōnā-tus, having tried; prān-sus, having taken lunch. 2. in a few adjectives: sex-to, sex-tus, sixth.

¹ This is an element in men-to, mon-ta, and mon-to: nutri-men-tum, nutriment; queri-mon-ta, complaint; testi-mon-tum (secondary suffix), testimony.

² With variable vowel (57, 2). The suffix man is weakened to men in the Nominative Singular, and to min in the other cases.

3 For gno-men, 'name,' the means by which one is known.

4 N is dropped; see 36, 5, 3).

5 Nearly equivalent to ta. In some languages it forms passive participles like ta.

6 Often secondary: pater-no, pater-nus, paternal; sometimes preceded by ā, ī, or ē: font-ā-nus, of a fountain; can-ī-nus, canine; ali-ē-nus, belonging to another; see 327, 329, and 330.

⁷ As ta and na are closely related in meaning and use, so are ti and ni. They are sometimes united in the same suffix: ti- \bar{o} -ni (326).

⁸ Ra and la are only different forms of the same suffix. In Latin and Greek this suffix often forms verbal adjectives which sometimes pass into nouns: $gn\bar{a}$ -rus, 'knowing,' from $gn\bar{a}$ in $n\bar{o}$ -sc \bar{o} , 'to know'; $\delta\hat{\omega}$ - $\rho o \nu$, 'gift,' 'something given,' from δo in $\delta i \delta \delta \omega \mu \iota$, 'to give.'

9 In the form of ti it is the first element in ti-mus, a, um: op-ti-mus, best; and the second element in is-si-mus, a, um: alt-is-si-mus, highest. In the form of ti, it is the first element in ti-ti, shortened to tit: cīvi-tis = cīvi-tit-s, state.

10 Often becoming adjectives or nouns: al-to, al-tus, high; nā-tus, son.

PRIMARY SUFFIXES .- (Continued.)

I.	II.	EXAMPLES.	
tar,	ter, tŏr,	see tra.	
ti,¹	ti,² si,	in verbal nouns: vēs-ti, vēs-tis, garment; met-ti, met-tis, messis (35, 3), reaping, harvest.	
tu,	tŭ,³	in verbal nouns, including supines: $sta-tu$, $sta-tus$, $standing$; $i-tu$, $i-tus$, going; $dic-t\bar{u}$ (supine), in telling, to tell.	
tar,4 tra,4	ter, tŏr, tro,	ter s and tor denoting Agency; tro, MEANS: pa-ter, father; mā-ter, mother; vīc-tor, conqueror; audī-tor, hearer; arā-trum, plough.	
vă,	vo, uo,	in nouns and adjectives: ar-vo, ar-vum, ploughed field; vac-uo, vac-uus, empty.	

SECTION II.

DERIVATION OF WORDS.

FORMATION OF NOUNS BY SUFFIXES.

I. From the Stems of Other Nouns.

321. DIMINUTIVES generally end in-

lus, la, lum; ulus, ula, ulum; culus, cula, culum:6

- 1 Ti is the first element in ti-ā, ti-o, ti-ē, ti-ō-ni, ti-ōn (i dropped): jūsti-tia, justice; servi-tio, servi-tium, service; dūri-tiē, dūri-tiēs, hardness; sta-tiōn, sta-tiō (n dropped), station.
 - ² I often disappears: men-ti, men-tis, men-ts, mēns (36, 2), mind.

³ Tu is the first element in the suffixes, tu-ā, tu-o; tū-ti, tūt, and tū-don: sta-tua, statue; mor-tuus, dead; servi-tūt, servi-tūt (servi-tūts), servi-tūs, servitude; turpi-tūdon, turpi-tūdo (n dropped), turpitude.

4 Perhaps of verbal origin (320, foot-note 1). This suffix seems to be the basis of several compound suffixes: tōr-ið, tōr-io, tūrð, tūro, trīc for tōr-ī-c, etc.; see examples, 324, 326, 330.

5 Ter is used in names denoting family relationship, originally AGENCY: pa-ter, lit., protector, from the root pa, to protect.

For the convenience of the learner the suffixes are given in the Nominative form, i. e., with the Nominative ending and the modified stem-vowel. Observe that the stem suffix in lu-s and lu-m is lo. The endings, ulus, ula, ulum, were developed irregularly after the analogy of u-lus, u-la, u-lum in such words as hortu-lus, virgu-lus, oppidu-lum, where the u is the modified stem-vowel. Thus the u in rēg-u-lus and capit-u-lum is an irregularity introduced from the Diminutives of a and o stems. Lus, la, lum are formed from the suffix la or ra, often used in forming Primary Stems (320). Culus, culum are compound suffixes in which the first part, cu, is formed from the suffix, originally ka, modified in Latin to co, cu, seen in lo-co-s, locus, place; see 320, ka, foot-note.

filio-lus, filio-la, atrio-lum, alveo-lus, hortu-lus, virgu-la, oppidu-lum, rēg-ulus,	a little son, a little daughter, a small hall, a small cavity, a small garden, a small branch, a small town, a petty king,	from	filius, filia, atrium, alveus, hortus, virga, oppidum, rēx,	son. daughter. hall. cavity. garden. branch. town. king.
rēg-ulus, capit-ulum, flōs-culus, parti-cula, mūnus-culum,	a petty king, a small head, a small flower, a small part, a small present,	" "	rēx, caput, flōs, pars, mūnus,	king. head. flower. part. present.

- 1. Lus, la, lum, are appended to a and o stems; ulus, ula, ulum, to Dental and Guttural stems; culus, cula, culum, to e, i, and u stems, and to Liquid and s stems; see examples.
- 2. Before lus, la, lum, the stem-vowels a and o take the form of o after e or i, and the form of u in other situations: filio-lus, filio-la for filio-la, hortu-lus for horto-lus.
- 3. Before culus, cula, culum, stems in u change u into i, and stems in on change o into u: versi-culus, 'a little verse,' from versus; homunculus, 'a small man,' from homo. Like nouns in on, a few other words form diminutives in un-culus, un-cula: av-unculus, 'maternal uncle,' from avus, 'grandfather.' 1
- 4. El·lus, el·la, el·lum, il·lus, il·la, il·lum,² are used when the stem of the primitive ends in ǎ or o, preceded by l, n, or r: occl·lus,² 'small eye,' from oculus; fābel·la, 'short fable,' from fābula; vīl-lum,² 'a small wine,' from vīnum.

Note.—The endings leus and cio occur: ecu-leus,3 'a small horse,' from equus; homun-cio, 'a small man,' from homo.

322. Patronymics, or names of Descent, generally end indes, stem-suffix da, masculine; s for ds, stem-suffix d, feminine.

Tantali-dēs, son of Tantalus; Tantali-s, daughter of Tantalus.⁴
Thēsī-dēs, son of Theseus; Thēsēi-s, daughter of Theseus.
Thestia-dēs, son of Thestius; Thestia-s, daughter of Thestius.

Note.—The suffix $n\bar{\epsilon}$, preceded by $\bar{\epsilon}$ or $\bar{\epsilon}$, is sometimes used in forming feminine Patronymics: $Nept\bar{u}n\bar{\epsilon}$ - $n\bar{\epsilon}$, daughter of Acrisius.

Nūbē-cula, plēbē-cula, and vulpē-cula are formed as if from e-stems.

3 Also written equuleus, but eculeus is the approved form.

² The syllables el and il do not belong to the ending, but are produced by a slight change in the stem. The quantity of the vowel e or i is therefore determined by the primitive: thus, oculus, oculu-lus = ocul-lus = ocel-lus; vinum, vinu-lum = vin-lum = vil-lum.

⁴ The vowel preceding the suffix is usually i, as in Tantali- $d\bar{e}s$, Tantali-s, modified from the stem-vowel o. Primitives in eus generally change eu to \bar{i} or $\bar{e}i$, as in Thesi- $d\bar{e}s$, Thesei-s; and primitives in eus change stem-vowel o to a, as in Thestia- $d\bar{e}s$. Other nouns sometimes form Patronymics after the analogy of nouns in ius: Läertiadēs, son of Laertes. Aenēds has Aenēadēs, masculine, and Aenēis, feminine.

323. Designations of Place are often formed with the endings-

	arium, etum,	tum,	116.	
columb-ārium,	a dovecot,	from	columba,	dove.
querc-ētum,	a forest of oaks,	"	quercus.	oak.
salīc-tum,	a thicket of willows.	66	salīx.	willow.
ov-īle,	a sheepfold,	"	ovis,	sheep.

- 1. Ārium designates the PLACE where anything is kept, a receptacle: aerārium, 'treasury,' from acs, money.
- 2. **Etum**, tum, used with names of trees and plants, designate the PLACE where they flourish: olivetum, 'an olive-grove,' from oliva, 'olive-tree.'
- 3. Ile, used with names of animals, designates their STALL or FOLD: bovile, 'stall for cattle,' from bos, stem bov.

4. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Aestu-ārium, 'tidal bay,' from aestus, 'tide'; avi-ārium, 'aviary,' from avis, 'bird'; dōn-ārium, 'place for offerings,' from dōnum, 'gift'; pōm-ārium, 'orchard,' from pōmum, 'fruit'; aescul-ētum, 'forest of oaks,' from aesculus, 'oak'; pōn-ētum, 'pine-forest,' from pōnus, 'pine'; ros-ētum, 'rose-bed,' from rosa, 'rose'; vīn-ētum, 'vineyard,' from vīnum, 'vine'; virgul-tum, 'a thicket,' from virgula, 'bush'; capr-īle, 'goat-stall,' from caper, 'goat.'

324. Derivatives are also formed with several other endings, especially with—

ārius, iŏ, ium, itium, īna, imōnium, itās, tūs, ātus.2

statu-ārius,	a statuary,	from	statua,	statue.
mūl-iŏ,	muleteer,	"	mūlus,	mule.
sacerdot-ium,	priesthood,	66	sacerdōs,	priest.
serv-itium,	servitude,	"	servus,	slave.
rēg-īna,	queen,	"	rēx.	king.
patr-imonium,	patrimony,	44	pater.	father.
cīv-itās,	citizenship,	"	cīvis,	citizen.
vir-tūs,	virtue,	"	vir,	man,
consul-atus,	consulship,	"	cōńsul,	consul.

- 1. Ārius and iŏ generally designate PERSONS by their occupations.
- 2. Ium and itium denote office, condition, or collection: servitium, servitude, sometimes a collection of servants.

¹ Ārium and $\bar{\imath}$ le are the endings of neuter adjectives used substantively (330). The vowels \bar{a} and $\bar{\imath}$ were probably developed out of the stem-vowel of the primitive, but they were afterward treated as a part of the suffix. For an explanation of such vowels, see 330, foot-note. Many derivative endings were thus formed originally by the union of certain suffixes with the stem-vowel of the primitive; accordingly, when added to vowel stems, they generally take the place of the stem-vowel: columb- \bar{a} , columb- \bar{a} rium; querc- \bar{a} tum,

² $\bar{A}rius$ is identical in origin with the adjective ending $\bar{a}rius$ (330), and $\bar{a}tus$ with $\bar{a}tus$ in participles. In each the initial \bar{a} was originally the stem-vowel of the primitive. $\bar{I}na$ is the same formation as the adjective ending $\bar{\imath}nus$ (330). On *i-tium*, *i-nōnium*, *i-tūs*, and $t\bar{\imath}s$, see ti, tu, man, $m\bar{o}n$, with foot-notes, 320; remember that the initial i was developed from the stem-vowel of the primitive.

- 3. Ina and imonium are used with some variety of signification; see examples under 7 below.
- 4. Itās and tūs designate some CHARACTERISTIC or CONDITION: hērēd-i-tās, 'heirship,' from hērēs, 'heir'; virtūs, 'manliness,' 'virtue,' from vir.
- 5. Ātus denotes RANK, OFFICE, COLLECTION: consulatus, 'consulship,' from consul; senatus, 'senate,' 'collection of old men,' from senex.
 - 6. For Patrial or Gentile Nouns, see 331, note 1.

Note.—The endings $\bar{a}g\check{o}$, $\bar{\imath}g\check{o}$, and $\bar{u}g\check{o}^{\,1}$ also occur: vir- $\bar{a}g\check{o}$, 'heroic maiden,' from vir, 'hero'; ferr- $\bar{u}g\check{o}$, 'iron-rust,' from ferrum, 'iron.'

7. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Libr-ārius, 'transcriber of books,' from liber, 'book'; līgn-ārius, 'joiner,' from līgnum, 'wood'; quadrīg-ārius, 'driver of a four-horse chariot,' from quadrīga, 'four-horse chariot'; arbitr-ium, 'decision,' from arbiter, 'arbiter'; conjug-ium, 'wedlock,' from conjunx, 'spouse'; magis-ter-ium, 'presidency,' from magis-ter, 'president'; ōs-tium, 'door,' from ōs, 'mouth'; gall-īna, 'hen,' from gallus, 'cock'; dōctr-īna, for dōctōr-īna, 'doctrine,' from dōctor, 'learned man,' 'doctor'; mātr-imōnium, 'matrimony,' from māter, 'mother'; aedīl-itās, 'office of edile,' from aedīlis, 'edile'; auctōr-itās, 'authority,' from auctōr, 'founder,' 'author'; senec-tūs, 'old age,' from senex, 'old man'; tribūn-ātus,² 'office of tribune,' from tribūnus, 'tribune.'

II. Nouns from Adjectives.

325. From Adjectives are formed various Abstract Nouns with the endings—

ia, itia, ta, tās, itās, tūs, ēdŏ, itūdŏ, imōnia.3

-u, -uu,	, out, outs, rous,	tus, cuo,	roudo, milos	·····
dīligent-ia,	diligence,	from	dīligēns,	diligent.
superb-ia,	haughtiness,	"	superbus,	haughty.
amīc-itia,	friendship,	"	amīcus,	friendly.
juven-ta,	youth,	"	juvenis,	young.
līber-tās,	freedom,	"	līber,	free.
bon-itās,	goodness,	"	bonus,	good.
pi-etas,4	piety,	46	pius,	pious.
juven-tūs,	youth,	46	juvenis,	young.
dulc-ēdŏ,	sweetness,	44	dulcis,	sweet.
sōl-itūdŏ,	solitude,	"	sõlus,	alone.
ācr-imōnia,	sharpness,	"	ācer,	sharp.

¹ These endings were formed, according to Corssen, by appending the suffix an to ag, the root of $ag\bar{c}$, to put in motion, make, do; see Corssen, I., p. 577.

² As if formed from a verb, tribūnō, āre, like equit-ātus, 'cavalry,' from equitō, āre, 'to ride,' from eques, 'a horseman.'

³ When appended to vowel stems, these endings take the place of the final vowel. Originally the initial i in i-tia, i-tia, i-tia, i-tia, i-tia, i-tia, and i- $m\bar{o}nia$ formed no part of the suffix, but represented the stem-vowel of the primitive. On ia, tia, and ta, see ja, ti, and ta, 320; on i- $t\bar{u}a$ and $t\bar{u}a$, see page 160, foot-note 2; on i- $t\bar{u}a\bar{d}\bar{v}$ and i- $m\bar{o}nia$, see tu and man, 320. The origin of \bar{e} - $d\bar{o}$, \bar{e} -din is obscure.

⁴ For pi-itās by dissimilation (26).

Note 1.—Instead of ia and itia, ies and ities occur: pauper, pauper-ies, poverty; dūrus, dūr-itia or dūr-ities, hardness.

Note 2.—Before tas the stem of the adjective is sometimes slightly changed: facilis,

facultās, faculty; difficilis, difficultās, difficulty; potēns, potestās, power.

Note 8.—A few adjectives form abstracts with both itūs and itūdō: firmus, firmitās, firmitūdō, firmness. Polysyllabic adjectives in tus often suffer contraction before these endings: honestōs for honest-itūs, 'honesty,' from honestus; sōllicitūdō, for sōllicit-itūdō, 'sollicitude,' from sōllicitus.

1. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Audāc-ia, 'boldness,' from audāx, 'bold'; jūst-itia, 'justice,' from jūstus, 'just'; saev-itia, 'cruelty,' from saevus, 'cruel'; senec-ta, 'old age,' from senex, 'old'; aequāl-itās, 'equality,' from aequālis, 'equal'; cār-itās, 'dearness,' from cārus, 'dear'; anxi-etās, 'anxiety,' from anxius, 'anxious'; alt-itūdō, 'height,' from altus, 'high'; fort-itūdō, 'bravery,' from fortis, 'brave'; māgn-itūdō, 'greatness,' from māgnus, 'great.'

'III. Nouns from Verbs and from Roots.

326. From the Stems of Verbs and from Roots are formed numerous nouns with the suffixes—1

ter, tor,2 trīx, trum, tūra, tus, tiŏ, iŏ.3

pa-ter, frā-ter, amā-tor, audī-tor, dēfēn-sor, vēnā-tor, vēnā-trīx, gubernā-trīx, arā-trum,	father, brother, lover, hearer, defender, hunter, huntress, directress, plough,	from the root "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" ""	pa, bhra, fra, amā-re, audī-re, dēfend-ere, vēnā-rī, " gubernā-re, arā-re,	to protect. to support. to love. to hear. to defend. to hunt. " to direct. to plough.
rōs-trum, ⁴ pīc-tor, pīc-tūra, ū-sūra, ⁵ audī-tus, vI-sus, ⁵ audī-tiŏ, moni-tiŏ, ⁶ vI-siŏ, ⁵	beak, painter, painting, using, hearing, sight, hearing, advising, seeing,	44 44 44 44 44 44	rōd-ere, ping-ere, ut-ī, audī-re, vid-ēre, audī-re, monē-re, vid-ēre,	to gnaw. to paint. to use. to hear. to see. to hear. to advise. to see.
leg-iŏ, occīd-iŏ,	a selecting, a slaying,	"	leg-ere, occīd-ere,	to select. to slay.

¹ These endings appear to be true suffixes, as they do not contain the stem-vowel of the primitive.

² For the phonetic change by which t in tor, $t\bar{u}ra$, etc., unites with a preceding d or t and produces ss or s, as in $d\bar{e}fend-tor$, $d\bar{e}f\bar{e}nsor$, see 35, 3, 2).

³ On ter, tor, trīx, and tūra, see tar, tra; on tus and tiö, see tu and ti; and on iö. see ja, 320.

⁴ For rod-trum; see 35, 3, 1).

⁵ For ūt-tūra, vid-tus, vid-tič; see 35, 3, 2).

⁶ From stem moni, seen in moni-tum.

- 1. Ter, tor, and trīx designate the AGENT OF DOER; trum, the MEANS of the action; and tūra, tus, tiŏ, and iŏ, the ACT itself; see examples. But nouns in tus and iŏ sometimes become concrete, and denote the RESULT of the action: quaes-tus, 'gain,' from quaes-ere, 'to gain'; leg-iŏ, 'a selecting' and then 'a legion' (the men selected), from leg-ere, 'to select'; exerci-tus, 'exercise,' 'drill,' and then 'an army' (a collection of trained men), from exercē-re, 'to exercise.'
- 2. Us, a, ŏ¹ sometimes designate the agent of the action: coqu-us = coquus, cook, from coqu-ere, to cook; scrīb-a, writer, from scrīb-ere; err-ŏ, wanderer, from err-āre.

Note 1.—Tor, trīx, tūra, and tus are sometimes added to noun stems with or without change: viā-tor, 'traveler,' from via, 'way'; senā-tor, 'senator,' from senew (Genitive senis, stem sen), 'old man'; jāni-tor, 'janitor,' and jāni-trīx, 'janitrix,' from jānua, 'gate'; lātterā-tūra, 'writing,' from lāttera, 'letter'; cōnsul-ā-tus, 'consulship,' from cōnsul, 'consul.'

Note 2.—For nouns in it from the stems of other nouns, see 324, with 1.

3. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Accūsā-tor, 'accuser,' from accūsā-re, 'to accuse'; cūrā-tor, 'keeper,' from cūrā-re, 'to take care of'; da-tor, 'giver,' from da-re, 'to give'; vīc-tor, 'victor,' from vinc-ere,² 'to conquer'; inven-trīx, 'a female discoverer,' from inven-īre, 'to discover'; mūnstrum = mon-es-trum,³ 'prodigy,' from mon-ēre, 'to admonish'; rās-trum, 'rake,' from rād-ere, 'to rake,' 'scrape'; armā-tūra, 'arming,' 'equipment,' from armā-re, 'to arm'; nā-tūra, 'birth,' 'nature,' from nā-scī,⁴ 'to be born'; scrīp-tūra, for scrīb-tūra,5 'writing,' from scrīb-ere, 'to write'; āc-tus, for ag-tus,6 'driving,' 'act,' from ag-ere, 'to drive,' 'act'; āc-tiō, for ag-tuō, 'action,' from ag-ere, 'to act'; moni-tiō, 'act of admonishing,' from monē-re, 'to admonish'; mon-itus, 'admonition,' from monē-re, 'to admonish'; opīn-iō, 'opinion,' from opīn-ārī, 'to think'; opt-iō, 'choice,' from opt-āre, 'to choose.'

327. From the Stems of Verbs and from Roots are formed nouns with the suffixes—

or, us, ēs, iēs, ium, en, men, mentum, mōnia, mōnium, bulum, culum, brum, crum, num.8

¹ O and \tilde{d} , the stems of us and a, are only different forms of the suffix a; and $\tilde{o}n$, the stem of \check{o} , $\tilde{o}nis$, is from the suffix an; see 320.

² Post mia

³ With the compound suffix es-trum, from as-tra; see as and tra, 320.

⁴ Root nā.

⁵ See 33, 1.

⁶ Observe change in quantity: ag-ere, āc-tus; see Gellius, IX., 6.

⁷ On the forms bulum, brum, culum, crum, see 35, 2, foot-note 8.

⁸ On or (for os), us, and ēs, see as; on iès and ium, see ja; on en, see an; on men, mentum, mōnia, and mōnium, see man; on num, see na—all in 320; on bulum, brum, culum, orum, see Corssen, II., p. 40.

am-or,	love,	from	am-āre,	to love.
tim-or,	fear,	- "	tim-ēre,	to fear.
gen-us,	birth,	"	gen in gign-ere,	to bear.
frīgus,	cold,	"	frig-ere,1	to be cold.
sēd-ēs,	seat	"	sed-ēre,2	to sit.
fac-ies,	make, face,	"	fac-ere,	$to \ make.$
gaud-ium,	joy,	"	gaud-ēre,	to rejoice.
stud-ium,	zeal, study,	"	stud-ēre,	to be zealous.
pect-en,	$a\ comb$,	"	pect-ere,	$to\ comb.$
flü-men,	a stream,	"	flu-ere,	to flow.
ōrnā-mentum,	ornament,	"	ōrnā-re,	to $adorn.$
queri-monia,	complaint,	"	querī,	to complain.
ali-monium,	nourishment,	"	ale-re,	to nourish.
vocā-bulum,	appellation,	"	vocā-re,	to $call$.
vehi-culum,	vehicle,	"	vehe-re,	to carry.
dēlū-brum,	shrine,	"	dēlu-ere,	to cleanse.
simulā-crum,	image,	44	simulā-re,	to represent.
rēg-num,	reign,	"	reg-ere,	to rule.

- 1. Or, us, ēs, iēs, and ium generally designate the action or state denoted by the verb, but ēs, iēs, and ium sometimes designate the result of the action: aedificium, 'edifice,' from aedific-āre, 'to build.'
- 2. Men, mentum, monia, monium, and num generally designate the MEANS of the action, or its involuntary Subject, sometimes the act itself, or its RESULT: flu-men, 'a stream,' 'something which flows,' from flu-ere; ag-men, 'an army in motion,' from ag-ere.

Note.—The stem or root is sometimes shortened or changed: mō-mentum, 'moving force,' from mov-ēre.

3. Bulum, culum, brum, and crum designate the instrument or the PLACE of the action: vehi-culum, 'vehicle' (instrument of the action), from vehe-re; sta-bulum, 'stall' (place of the action), from stā-re.

Note.—The vowel of the stem is sometimes changed: *sepul-crum*, 'sepulchre,' from *sepel-īre, 'to bury'; see 24, 8.

4. In culum, c is dropped after c and g: vinc-ulum, 'a bond,' from vinc-īre; rcg-ula, 'rule,' from reg-ere.

Note.— $D\tilde{o}$, la, $\tilde{a}g\tilde{o}$, $\tilde{s}g\tilde{o}$, $\tilde{s}g\tilde{o}$, and a few other endings also occur: $torp\tilde{e}$ - $d\tilde{o}$, 'numbness,' from $torp\tilde{e}$ -re, 'to be numb'; $cup\tilde{v}$ - $d\tilde{o}$, 'desire,' from cupe-re, 'to desire'; $cand\tilde{e}$ -la, 'candle,' from $cand\tilde{e}$ -re, 'to shine'; vor- $\tilde{a}g\tilde{o}$, 'whirlpool,' from vor- $\tilde{a}re$, 'to swallow up'; vert- $\tilde{s}g\tilde{o}$, 'a turn,' from vert-ere, 'to turn.'

5. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Splend-or, 'brightness,' from splend-ere, 'to be bright'; op-us, 'work,' from the root op for ap, 'work'; dec-us, 'ornament,' from root dec, in dec-et,

¹ In several of these examples the noun is not strictly derived from the verb, but both noun and verb are formed from one common root, as *frīg-us* and *frīg-ere* from the root *frīg*.

² Sed-ēre and sēd-ēs show a variable root-vowel-e, ē; see 20, note 2.

⁸ See Corssen, I., p. 577; II., pp. 802, 803.

'it is becoming'; nūb-ēs, 'cloud,' from the root nūb in nūb-ere, 'to veil'; spec-ies, 'look,' from spec-ere, 'to look'; effug-ium, 'escape,' from effug-ere, 'to escape'; imper-ium, 'command,' from imper-āre, 'to command'; certā-men, 'contest,' from certā-re, 'to contend'; docu-mentum,' 'lesson,' 'document,' from docē-re, 'to teach'; nūtrī-mentum, 'nourishment,' from nūtrī-re, 'to nourish'; pā-bulum, 'fodder,' from the root pā in pā-scere, 'to feed'; spectā-culum, 'sight,' from spectā-re, 'to behold'; lū-crum, 'gain,' from lu-ere, 'to pay'; dō-num, 'gift,' from the root da in da-re, 'to give.'

FORMATION OF ADJECTIVES BY SUFFIXES.

I. Adjectives from Nouns.

328. Fullness.—Adjectives denoting fullness, abundance, supply, generally end in—

	osus, cosus,	lēns, len	itus, tus. ²	
anim-osus,	full of courage,	from	animus,	spirit, courage.
frūctu-osus,	fruitful,	"	frūctus,	fruit.
belli-cōsus,	warlike,	"	bellum,	war.
pesti-lēns,	pestilential,	"	pestis,	pest.
pesti-lentus,	- "	"	* "	* "
vīno-lentus,	full of wine,	"	vīnum,	wine.
fraudu-lentus,	fraudulent,	"	fraus,	fraud.
ālā-tus,	winged,	"	āla,	wing.
turrī-tus,	turreted,	"	turris,	turret.
cornū-tus,	horned,	"	cornū,	horn.
jūs-tus,	just,	"	jūs,	right.

Note.—Before $\bar{o}sus$ the stem-vowel is generally dropped, but u is retained: $animo\bar{c}sus$, $anim-\bar{c}sus$, but $fr\bar{u}ctu-\bar{c}sus$.

1. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Ann-ōsus, 'full of years,' from annus, 'year'; lūxuri-ōsus, 'luxurious,' from lūxuria, 'luxury'; perīcul-ōsus, 'dangerous,' from perīculum, 'danger'; tenebr-ōsus and tenebri-cōsus, 'gloomy,' from tenebrae, 'gloom'; turbu-lentus, 'riotous,' from turba, 'riot'; barbā-tus, 'bearded,' from barba, 'beard'; aurī-tus, 'long eared,' from auris, 'ear'; onus-tus, 'burdened,' from onus, 'burden.'

329. MATERIAL.—Adjectives designating the material of which anything is made generally end in—

¹ With modified stem or root: doce, docu; da, do.

² On ōsus, see Schleicher, p. 403; Corssen, I., p. 62; II., p. 688. Cōsus is from co and ōsus; thus from bellum, 'war,' is formed belli-cus, 'belonging to war'; and from belli-cus is formed belli-cus is formed belli-cus, 'warlike.' On lēns, lentus, see ra, la, 320. The vowel before lēns, lentus—generally u, sometimes o or i-was originally the stem-vowel of the primitive, as in vino-lentus, pesti-lēns, pesti-lentus, but it was sometimes treated as a part of the suffix: vi-olentus, 'violent,' from vīs, 'force.' Tus is identical with tus in the passive participle, and when added to vowel-stems is preceded by \$\bar{a}\$, \$\bar{v}\$ or \$\bar{u}\$: ālā-tus, turrī-tus, cornā-tus, like amā-tus, audī-tus, acā-tus ('sharpened,' from acu-o, 'to sharpen'). It may, however, be added to consonant-stems: jās-tus.

eus, nus, neus, āceus, icius.1

aur-eus, argent-eus, fāg-eus,	golden, of silver, of beech,	from "	aurum, argentum, fāgus,	gold. silver. a beech. "
fāgi-nus, ² fāgi-neus, ² pōpul-nus, ³	of poplar,	"	 " põpulus,	", a poplar.
pōpul-neus,³ papyr-āceus, later-icius,	of papyrus, of brick,	"	papyrus, later,	papyrus. brick.

Note.—These endings sometimes denote characteristic or possession: virgineus, 'belonging to a maiden,'

330. Characteristic.—Adjectives signifying belonging to, derived from, generally end in—

cus, icus, ālis, īlis, ānus, īnus, āris, ārius, ius, ēnsis.4

cīvi-cus, patr-icus, nātūr-ālis, mort-ālis, host-īlis, cīv-Īlis, oppid-ānus, urb-ānus, mar-īnus, equ-īnus, lūn-āris, auxili-ārius,	relating to a citizen, paternal, natural, mortal, hostile, relating to a citizen, of the town, of the city, marine, of, pertaining to a horse, lunar, salutary, auxiliary,	from "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" "" ""	cīvis, pater, nātūra, mors, hostis, cīvis, oppidum, urbs, mare, equus, lūna, salūs, auxilium,	citizen. father. nature. death. enemy. citizen. town. city. sea. horse. moon. safety. aid.
salūt-āris,	salutary,	"	salūs,	safety.

¹ On eus, stem eo, see Corssen, II., pp. 342-346; Bopp, III., p. 429; on nus, see na, 320. Neus adds eus to no, seen in nus; āceus adds eus to āc, seen in āw (333, foot-note 2); and ic-ius adds ius to ic or ico; see ja, 320, and icus, 330.

² Stem-vowel changed to i before nus and neus.

³ Stem-vowel dropped before nus and neus.

⁴ On cus, see ka, 320. In i-cus, i was originally the stem-vowel of the primitive, but was finally treated as a part of the suffix, as in patr-icus. In the same way the vowels \(\tilde{a} \) and \(\tilde{t} \) in \(\tilde{d} \) is, \(\tilde{a} \) is, \(\tilde{a} \) is, \(\tilde{d} \) is in such words as \(\tilde{d} \) coils, 'docile,' from \(\tilde{d} \) coils -re, as part of the primitives; thus in such words as \(\tilde{d} \) coils, 'docile,' from \(\tilde{d} \) coils -re, as part of the suffix, making \(\tilde{t} \) is. If now \(\tilde{t} \) is be added to \(\tilde{h} \) osti, the stem of \(\tilde{h} \) ostis, we shall have \(\tilde{h} \) coilsis = \(\tilde{h} \) osti-\(\tilde{t} \) is, or, with Corssen, we may suppose that from \(\tilde{h} \) ostis was formed the verb \(\tilde{h} \) osti-\(\tilde{t} \), and \(\tilde{t} \) is and \(\tilde{t} \) that the ending \(\tilde{t} \) is supposed to have \(\tilde{h} \) a similar origin. \(\tilde{A} \) its, and \(\tilde{a} \) its are virtually the same suffix, as \(\tilde{t} \) and \(\tilde{t} \) are interchangeable; see \(\tau \), \(\tilde{t} \) and \(\tilde{t} \) is and \(\tilde{t} \) is and \(\tilde{t} \) its. \(\tilde{t} \) and \(\tilde{t} \) is an \(\tilde{t} \) in \(\tilde{t} \). \(\tilde{t} \) in \(\tilde{t} \) is an \(\tilde{t} \) in \(\tilde{t} \) in \(\tilde{t} \) in \(\tilde{t} \) in \(\tilde{t} \) is an \(\tilde{t} \) in \(\tilde{t} \

⁵ But $\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ -tor is formed from $\bar{o}r\bar{a}$ -re by adding tor to the stem; see 326.

- 1. Ester or estris,¹ timus, itimus, ticus,² cinus, and a few other endings occur: terr-ester or terr-estris, 'terrestrial,' from terra, 'earth'; maritimus, 'maritime,' from mare, 'sea'; lēg-itimus, 'lawful,' from lēx, lēgis, 'law'; rūs-ticus, 'rustic,' from rūs, 'country'; vāti-cinus, 'prophetic,' from vātēs, 'prophet.'
 - 2. Other Examples are-

Domini-cus, 'of a master,' from dominus, 'master'; serv-īlis, 'slavish,' from servus, 'slave'; vir-īlis, 'manly,' from vir, 'man'; capit-ālis, 'of the head,' 'capital,' from caput, 'head'; rēg-ālis, 'kingly,' from rēx, 'king'; cōnsul-āris, 'consular,' from cōnsul, 'consul'; mīlit-āris, 'military,' from mīles, 'soldier'; agr-ārius, 'of or relating to land,' from ager, 'field'; argent-ārius, 'of silver,' from argentum, 'silver'; can-īnus, 'of a dog,' from canis, 'dog'; lup-īnus, 'of a wolf,' from lupus, 'wolf'; mont-ānus, 'of a mountain,' from mōns, 'mountain'; nox-ius, 'injurious,' from noxa, 'injury'; patr-ius, 'of a father,' from pater, 'father'; imperātōr-ius, 'of a commander,' from inperātor, 'commander.'

331. Adjectives from proper nouns generally end in—
ānus, iānus, īnus; ius, iacus, icus; ēnsis, iēnsis; ās, aeus, ēus.3

of Sulla. Sulla. Sull-ānus, from Sulla. Roman, Rome. Rom-anus, Roma, " Mari-ānus, of Marius, Marius, Marius. Ciceron-ianus, Ciceronian, Cicero, Cicero. Lat-īnus,2 Latin, Latium, Latium. " Plaut-īnus, of Plautus. Plautus, Plautus. " Corinthian, Corinthus, Corinth. Corinth-ius, 46 Corinth-iacus. " British. Britannus. a Briton. Britann-icus, " of Cannae, Cann-ēnsis. Cannae, Cannae. " Athens. Athēn-iensis. Athenian. Athenae. " Fidenae. Fīdēn-ās, of Fidenae, Fīdēnae, " Smyrn-aeus, Smyrnean, Smyrna, Smyrna. Pythagor-eus, Pythagorean, Pythagorās, Pythagoras.

1. Ānus and iānus are the endings generally used in derivatives from Names of Persons; but others also occur.

Note 1.—Many of these adjectives from names of places are also used substantively as *Patrial* or *Gentile Nouns* to designate the citizens of the place: *Corinthiī*, the Corinthians; *Athēniēnsēs*, the Athenians.

Note 2.—The Roman Gentës or clans were all designated by adjectives in ius, as gëns Cornëlia, gëns Jūlia.

¹ The ending ester or estris may be formed by adding ter or tris to es from the suffix as (320); but see Corssen, II., p. 549.

² On ti-mus, i-ti-mus, and ti-cus, see ta, ma, ca, 320.

³ When appended to vowel stems, these endings take the place of the stem-vowel: Sull-ānus. In fact, ānus is formed by the union of the stem-vowel with the suffix. So in Mari-ānus, but in examples like this the i before ānus was finally treated as a part of the suffix, making iānus, as seen in Cicerōn-iānus. Īnus in Lat-īnus contains io, from Lat-io, the stem of Latium.

Note 8.—An adjective in ius, used substantively, formed a part of the name of every distinguished Roman, and designated the $g\bar{e}ns$ to which he belonged; see *Roman Names*, 649.

II. ADJECTIVES FROM ADJECTIVES.

332. DIMINUTIVES from other adjectives generally end like diminutive nouns (321) in—

lus, ulus, culus.1

ēbrio-lus,	somewhat drunken,	from	ēbrius,	drunken.
aureo-lus,	golden,	"	aureus,	golden.
long-ulus,	rather long,	"	longus,	long.
pauper-culus,	rather poor,	"	pauper,	poor.

Note 1.—The endings ellus and illus also occur as in nouns (321, 4): nov-ellus, 'new,' from novus, 'new.'

Note 2.—Culus is sometimes added to comparatives: $d\bar{u}rius$ -culus, 'somewhat hard,' from $d\bar{u}riur$, 'd $\bar{u}rius$, 'harder.'

III. Adjectives from Verbs and from Roots.

333. Verbal adjectives generally end in—

bundus, cundus, dus; bilis, tilis, silis, lis; āx.2

mīrā-bundus,	wondering,	\mathbf{from}	mīrā-rī,	to wonder.
mori-bundus,	dying,	"	morī,	to die.
verē-cundus,	diffident,	"	verē-rī,	to fear.
cali-dus,	warm,	"	calē-re,	to be warm.
pavi-dus,	fearful,	"	pavē-re,	to fear.
amā-bilis,	worthy of love,	"	amā-re,	to love.
dūc-tilis,	ductile,	"	dūc-ere,	to lead.
flec-silis,3 } flexilis,	flexible,	"	flect-ere,	to turn.
doci-lis,	docile,	"	doce-re,	to teach.
pūgn-āx,	pugnacious,	"	pūgnā-re,	to fight.
aud-āx,	daring,	"	audē-re,	to dare.

- 1. Bundus and cundus have nearly the force of the present participle; but bundus is somewhat more expressive than the participle: laetā-bundus, rejoicing greatly; and cundus generally denotes some characteristic rather than a single act or feeling: verē-cundus, diffident.
 - 2. Dus retains the simple meaning of the verb.
- 3. Bilis, tilis, silis, and lis denote CAPABILITY, generally in a passive sense: amabilis, capable or worthy of being loved; sometimes in an active sense: terribilis, terrible, capable of producing terror.

¹ See p. 153, foot-note 6.

² Bundus is explained by Corssen and others as formed by appending undus, endus, the Gerundive suffix, to bu=fu, as seen in $fu\bar{\imath}$; cundus, by adding the same suffix to co (ka, 320); see Corssen, II., pp. 310-312. On dus, see Corssen, II., pp. 302, 303; on lis, see ra, la, 320; and on bilis, 320, foot-note 1; also Corssen, I., pp. 166-169; on tilis and silis, Corssen, II., pp. 41, 326. The ending $\bar{a}x = \bar{a}$ -c-s is for \bar{a} -co-s, in which \bar{a} was originally the stem-vowel of an \bar{a} -verb: thus $p\bar{u}gn$ - \bar{a} -co-s becomes $p\bar{u}gn\bar{a}$ -cs, $p\bar{u}gn\bar{a}x$.

§ Flec-silis = flect-tilis; see 35, 3, 2).

- 4. Āx denotes inclination, generally a faulty one: loquāx, loquacious.
- 5. Cus, īcus, ūcus, vus, uus, īvus, tīvus, tīcius, ius, and ulus¹ also

Medi-cus, 'healing,' 'medical,' from medē-rī, 'to heal'; am-īcus, 'friendly,' from am-āre, 'to love'; cad-ūcus, 'falling,' 'inclined to fall,' from cadere, 'to fall'; sal-vus, 'safe,' from root sal, 'whole,' 'sound'; noc-uus and noc-īvus, 'hurtful,' from noc-ēre, 'to hurt'; cap-tīvus, 'captive,' from cap-ere, 'to take'; fīctīcius, for fig-tīcius, 'feigned,' from fig, the root of fing-ere, 'to form,' 'fashion,' 'feign'; evim-ius, 'select,' 'choice,' from exim-ere, 'to select out'; crēd-ulus, 'credulous,' from crēd-ere, 'to believe.'

6. Other Examples are-

Lūdi-bundus, 'sportive,' 'playful,' from lūde-re, 'to play'; rīdi-bundus, 'laughing,' from rīdē-re, 'to laugh'; fā-cundus, 'eloquent,' from fā-rī, 'to speak'; jū-cundus, for juv-cundus, 'pleasant,' from juv-āre, 'to aid,' 'delight'; avi-dus, 'greedy,' from avē-re, 'to long for'; cupi-dus, 'desirous,' from cupe-re, 'to desire'; timi-dus, 'timid,' from timē-re, 'to fear'; facilis, 'easy,' 'capable of being done,' from face-re, 'to do'; nūbi-lis, 'marriage-able,' from nūbe-re, 'to marry'; ūti-lis, 'useful,' from ūtī, 'to use'; crēdibilis, 'credible,' from crēde-re, 'to believe'; terri-bilis, 'terrible,' from terre-re, 'to terrify'; laudā-bilis, 'praiseworthy,' from laudā-re, 'to praise'; fertile,' from fer-re, 'to bear'; cap-āx, 'capacious,' from cap-ere, 'to take'; ten-āx, 'tenacious,' from ten-ēre, 'to hold.'

IV. Adjectives from Adverbs and Prepositions.

334. A few adjectives are formed from adverbs and prepositions:²

crās-tinus, contrā-rius, inter-nus, super-bus,	of to-morrow, contrary, internal, haughty,	from " "	crās, contrā, inter, super,	to-morrow. against. among, within. above.
super-nus,	upper,	"	î. '	"

FORMATION OF VERBS BY SUFFIXES.

I. VERBS FROM NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

335. Verbs formed from nouns and adjectives are called DENOMINATIVES. They end in—

CONJ. I.	CONJ. II.	CONJ. III.	CONJ. IV.
ō, ā-re,	eō, ē-re,	uō, ue-re,3	iō, ī-re.4

¹ Vus, uus, and *\(\bar{z}\)-vus* are only different forms of the same suffix; uus was formed by vocalizing v in vus; \(\bar{z}\)-vus, by adding vus to the stem-vowel \(\bar{z}\); noc-\(\bar{z}\)-vus, as if from a verb, noc-\(\bar{z}\)re = noc-\(\bar{z}\)re. The other endings are composed of elements already explained.

² But adverbs and prepositions are in origin case-forms; see 304; 307, note 1.

³ Conjugation III, contains primitive verbs with a few derivatives.

⁴ According to Curtius and others, the suffix which was added to the stems of nouns and adjectives to form verbs was originally ja, pronounced ya, probably identical with i.

cūr-ō,	ā-re,	to care for,	from	cūr-a,	care.
fug-ō,	ā-re,	to put to flight,	"	fug-a,	flight.
pūgn-ō,	ā-re,	to fight,	"	pūgn-a,	battle.
bell-ō,	ā-re,	to carry on war,	"	bell-um,	war.
don-ō,	ā-re,	to give.	"	dōn-um,	gift.
firm-ō,	ā-re,	to make firm,	"	firm-us,	firm.
labor-o,	ā-re,	to labor,	-66	labor, -	labor.
līber-ō,	ā-re.	to liberate.	46	liber,	free.
nomin-o,	ā-re,	to name,	"	nomen.	name.
alb-eō,	ē-re,	to be white,	44	alb-us,	white.
clār-ō,	ā-re,	to make bright,	66	clār-us,	bright.
clār-eō,	ē-re,	to be bright,	46	"	
flör-eö,	ē-re,	to bloom,	"	flös,	flower.
lūc-eō,	ē-re,	to shine,	44	lūx=lūc·s,	light.
met-uo,	ue-re.	to fear,	44	met-us,	fear.
stat-uō,	ue-re,	to place,	"	stat-us,	position.
fīn-iō,	ī-re,	to finish,	44	fīn-is,	end.
moll-īō,	ī-re,	to soften,	66	moll-is,	soft.
vēst-iō,	ī-re,	to clothe,	44	vēst-is,	garment.
serv-iō,	ī-re.	to serve,	"	serv-us.	servant.
cūstōd-iō,	ī-re,	to guard,	"	cūstōs,	guardian.

Note 1.—Denominatives of the second conjugation are intransitive, but most of the others are transitive.

Note 2.—Derivatives, like other verbs, may of course be deponent: dominor, $\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$, 'to domineer,' from dominus, 'master'; $m\bar{\imath}ror$, $\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$, 'to wonder at,' from $m\bar{\imath}rus$, 'wonderful'; partior, $\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}$, 'to part,' 'divide,' from pars, partis, 'part.'

1. OTHER EXAMPLES are-

Culp-āre, 'to find fault,' from culp-a, 'fault'; glōri-ārī, 'to boast,' 'glory,' from glōri-a, 'glory'; nov-āre, 'to make new,' from novus, 'new'; rēgn-āre, 'to reign,' from rēgnum, 'royal power'; lev-āre, 'to lighten,' from levis, 'light'; honōr-āre, 'to honor,' from honor, 'honor'; laud-āre, 'to praise,' from laus = laud-s, 'praise'; saev-īre, 'to be fierce,' from saevus, 'fierce.'

the root of i-re, 'to go.' This suffix added to a, the original stem-vowel of most nouns and adjectives, formed $a_{-j}a_{+}$, still preserved in the ending $a_{j}\bar{a}_{-}mi$ in a large class of Sanskrit verbs. From this compound suffix aja are derived in Latin, in the first conjugation, (1) $a\bar{o}$, contracted to \bar{o} : $c\bar{u}r$ - \bar{o} = $c\bar{u}r$ - $a\bar{j}\bar{o}$ for $c\bar{u}r$ - $a\bar{o}$ for $c\bar{u}r$ - $a\bar{j}a$; (2) \bar{a} : $c\bar{u}r$ - \bar{a} -s, shortened to a in cūr-a-t for cūr-ā-t;—in the second conjugation, (1) eō: lūc-eō for lūcejō for lūc-aja; (2) ē: lūc-ē-s, shortened to e in lūc-e-t for lūc-ē-t; and in the fourth conjugation, (1) io and iu: serv-io for serv-ijo for serv-aja, serv-iu-nt for serv-iju-nt for serv-aju-nt; and (2) i: serv-i-s, shortened to i in serv-i-t for serv-i-t; see Bopp, I., pp. 207-229; Curtius, Verbum, I., pp. 292, 326-348; Schleicher, pp. 358-361. For an objection to this explanation of the a-verbs, see Corssen, II., pp. 733-736.—On final ō of the first person, see 247, 1, foot-note 5.—The suffix ja, added to original *i-stems*, formed ijaand gave rise to i-verbs: fīniō = fīn-i-jō = fīn-ija; and added to u-stems, it formed u-ja and gave rise to u-verbs: met-uō = met-u-jō = met-uja.—In general, a-stems give rise to a-verbs; cūr-a, cūr-ā-re; o-stems, sometimes to a-verbs, sometimes to e-verbs, and sometimes to i-verbs: firmus, stem firmo, firm-ā-re; albus, stem alb-o, alb-ē-re; servus, stem serv-o, serv-ī-re; consonant stems, to a-verbs, e-verbs, or i-verbs, after the analogy of vowel stems: labor for labor, labor-ā-re; flos, flor-ē-re for flos-ē-re (31, 1); custos, stem custod, custod-i-re.

II. VERBS FROM VERBS.1

- 336. Frequentatives or Intensives denote repeated, continued, or intense action. They are generally of the first conjugation, and are formed-
 - I. From the stem of the participle 2 in tus or sus:

```
are, to sing,
                                  from
                                         cantus
                                                    from cano.
                                                                   to sing.3
cant-ō,
                                                          capiō.
                                                                   to take.
capt-ō,
         are, to snatch,
                                         captus
         are, to give often.
                                    "
                                         datus
                                                                   to give.
dat-ō,
                                                          dō,
                                    "
                                                      "
habit-ō, āre, to inhabit,
                                         habitus
                                                          habeo, to have.
                                    "
quass-o, are, to shake violently,
                                                      "
                                         quassus
                                                          quatio, to shake.
                                    "
territ-ō, āre, to frighten often,
                                         territus
                                                          terreo, to frighten.
```

II. From the present stem, by adding to and changing the preceding vowel to i, if not already in that form: 4

agi-tō,	āre,	to shake,	from	agō,	to move, lead.
clāmi-tō,	āre,	to shout often,	44	clāmō,	to shout.
rogi-tō,	āre,	to ask eagerly,	**	rogō,	to ask.
voci-tō,	āre,	to call often,	"	vocō,	to call.
voli-tō,	āre,	to flit about,	"	volō,	to fly.

Note 1 .- Frequentatives are sometimes formed from other frequentatives: 5 cantito. 'to sing often,' from canto from cano; dictito, 'to say often,' from dicto from dico.

Note 2 .- A few derivatives in esso and isso also occur. They are intensive in force, denoting earnest rather than repeated action, and are of the third conjugation: facio, facesso, 'to do earnestly'; incipio, incipisso, 'to begin eagerly.'

1. Other Examples are—

Dicto, 'to say often,' from dico, 'to say'; specto, 'to behold,' from specio, 'to look at'; factito, 'to do often,' from facio, 'to do,' 'make'; imperito, 'to command often,' from impero, 'to command'; rapto, 'to snatch,' from rapiō, 'to seize.'

337. Inceptives or Inchoatives denote the beginning of the They are of the third conjugation, and end in sco: action.

Either directly or through the medium of nouns, adjectives, or participles.

² They are thus strictly denominatives (335). Intransitive verbs, though without the participle in tus or sus, may form frequentatives after the analogy of transitive verbs: curso, are, 'to run about,' formed as if from cursus from curro, 'to run'; ventito, are, 'to come often,' formed as if from ventus, from venio, 'to come.'

3 Remember that the stem of the participle ends in o; thus cantus = canto-s. Observe, therefore, that the verb canto, 'I sing,' is in form like the stem of the participle. Canto was, however, originally produced by adding ja to canta, the original stem of

cantus, making canta-ja, cantajo, cantao, canto; see also 335, foot-note.

4 The formation from the participle was doubtless the original method, but at length to was regarded as the suffix, and was accordingly added to present stems, and as in many cases i preceded, the stem-vowel finally took this form before the suffix to; see Corssen, II., p. 297.

5 Sometimes from frequentatives no longer in use: āctitō, 'to act often,' as if from āctō, not in use, from agō; scrīptitō, 'to write often,' as if from scrīptō, not in use, from scrībo.

```
gel-ā-scō,
                 to begin to freeze,
                                        from
                                                gel-ö,
                                                                      to freeze,
                                                               ā-re,
                                                                      to be warm.
cal-ē-scō,
                 to become warm,
                                                cal-eō,
                                                               ē-re,
                                          "
rub-ē-scō.
                 to grow red,
                                                rub-eō.
                                                               ē-re,
                                                                      to be red.
vir-ē-scō,
                 to grow green,
                                                vir-eō,
                                                               ē-re,
                                                                      to be green.
                                          "
trem-i-sco.
                 to begin to tremble.
                                                trem-ö,
                                                                      to tremble.
                                                               e-re,
obdorm-ī-scō,
                 to fall asleep,
                                                obdorm-iō,
                                                                      to sleep.
                                                               ī-re,
```

338. Desideratives denote a *desire* to perform the action. They are of the fourth conjugation, and end in turio or surio:

```
par-turiō, īre, to strive to bring forth, from pariō, to bring forth. ē-suriō, īre, to desire to eat, "edō, to eat."
```

339. DIMINUTIVES denote a *feeble* action.² They are of the first conjugation, and end in illo:

```
cant-illō, to sing feebly, from cantō, to sing.
cōnscrīb-illō, to scribble, "cōnscrībō, to write.
```

Note.-For the Derivation of Adverss, see 304.

SECTION III.

COMPOSITION OF WORDS.

340. New words may be formed-

I. By the union of two or more words under one principal accent, without change of meaning:

Res pūblica, respūblica, republic; agrī cultūra, agrīcultūra, agriculture; jūris consultus, jūrisconsultus, lawyer, one skilled in the law; quem ad modum, quemadmodum, in what way—lit., to what measure.

Note.—These are compounds only in form. The separate words retain in a great measure their identity both in form and in meaning, and may in fact be written separately. Rès pùblica is the approved form. Other examples of this class are: legis-lator, law-giver; pater-familias, father of a family; senatus-consultum, decree of the senate; hactenus, thus far; saepe-numerō, often in number; bene-faciō, to do well, benefit; male-dieō, to revile; satis-faciō, to satisfy, do enough for; animum-ad-vertō, anim-ad-vertō, to notice, turn the mind to.

II. By prefixing an indeclinable particle to an inflected word, generally with some change of meaning:

Ad-sum, to be present; dē-pōnō, to lay down; re-pōnō, to replace; ē-discō, to learn by heart; im-memor, unmindful; per-facilis, very easy; prō-cōnsul,

¹ These are the only desideratives in common use, but a few others occur: cēnā-turiō, 'to desire to dine,' from cēnā, 'to dine'; ēmp-turiō, 'to desire to purchase,' from emō, 'to purchase'; nāp-turiō, 'to desire to marry,' from nābō, 'to marry.' They were probably formed originally through the medium of a verbal noun in tor or sor (326, foot-note 2): thus, cēnō, cēnā-tor, 'one who dines'; cēnā-tor-ī-re = cēnā-tur-ī-re (o changed to u), 'to desire to dine'; emō, ēmp-tor, 'a purchaser'; ēmp-tor-īre = ēmp-tur-ī-re, 'to desire to purchase.'

² Probably denominatives formed from verb-stems through diminutive verbal nouns.

proconsul, one acting for a consul; inter-regnum, interregnum, an interval between two reigns.

III. By uniting two or more simple stems or roots, and adding appropriate inflectional suffixes when needed:

Igni-color, fire-colored; grandi-aevo-s, grand-aevus, a, um, of great age; omni-potent-s, omnipotents, omnipotent; māgno-animo-s, māgnanimus, a, um, great-souled; tubi-cen, trumpeter; arti-fec-s, artifex, artificer; alio-qui, aliquis, any one.

- 1. In the first element of the compound observe-
- 1) That the stem-vowel generally takes the form of i: capro-corno-s, capri-cornus; tuba-cen, tubi-cen.
- 2) That consonant stems sometimes assume $i:hon\bar{o}r$ -i-fico- $s,hon\bar{o}rificus,$ a,um,honorable.
- 3) That the stem-vowel disappears before another vowel: $m\bar{a}gno\text{-}animus$, $m\bar{a}gnanimus$.
- 2. The stem-ending and the inflectional ending of the second element generally remain unchanged in the compound; see examples above. But observe—
- 1) That they are sometimes slightly changed: aequo-nocti, aequi-noctio-m,³ aequinoctium, equinox; multa-forma, multi-formis, with many forms.
- 2) That a verbal root or stem may be the second element in a compound noun or adjective: tubi-cen $(cen = can, the root of <math>can\delta$, to sing), trumpeter; $l\bar{e}ti$ -fer $(fer, root of fer\delta, to bear)$, death-bearing.

Note.—The words classed under II. and III. are regarded as real compounds, but those under III. best illustrate the distinctive characteristics of genuine compounds, as they are formed from compound stems and have a meaning which could not be expressed by the separate words. Thus, māgnus animus means a great soul, but māgnanimus means having a great soul.

341. In Compound Nouns, the first part is generally the stem of a noun or adjective, sometimes an adverb or preposition; and the second part is the stem of a noun, or a stem from a verbal root:

arti-fex, capri-cornus, aequi-noctium, nē-mŏ,	artist, capricorn, equinox, nobody,	from " " " "	arti-fac capro-cornu aequo-nocti ne-homon	in " "	ars caper aequus nē	"	fació. cornū. nox. homŏ. nōmen.	
prō-nōmen,	pronoun,	"	prō-nōmen	"	$\mathbf{pr\bar{o}}$	**	nömen.	

¹ Thus *igni-color* is formed by the union of two stems without inflectional suffix; but in *grand-aevu-s*, the suffix s is added to the stem *grandaevo*, compounded of *grandi* and *aevo*.

2 Literally, any other one.

³ Ti, the stem-ending of nox, becomes $ti\delta$, to which is added the nominative-ending m.

⁴ Class II. occupies a position intermediate between I. and III. Some compounds

of particles with verbs, for example, have developed a meaning quite distinct from that denoted by the separate parts, while others have simply retained the ordinary meaning of those parts.

1. Compounds in ex, dex, fex, cen, cida, and cola deserve special notice:

Rēmo-ex, rēmex,¹ oarsman; jūs-dex, jūdex,¹ judge; arti-fex, artist; tībia-cen, tībī-cen,² flute-player; homon-cīda, homi-cīda,³ manslayer; agri-cola,⁴ husbandman, one who tills the soil.

NOTE.—Ex (for ag-s) is from the root ag in ago, to drive, impel; dex (for dic-s), from dic in dico, to make known; fex (for fac-s), from fac in facio, to make; cen, from can in cano, to sing; cida (for caed-a), from caed in caedo, to cut, slay; cola (for col-a), from col in colo, to cultivate.

342. In Compound Adjectives, the first part is generally the stem of a noun or adjective, sometimes an adverb or preposition; and the second is the stem of a noun or adjective, or a stem from a verbal root:

lēti-fer, death-bearing, from lēti-fer in lētum and ferō. māgn-animus, magnanimous, "māgno-animo" māgnus "animus. per-facilis, very easy, "per-facili" per "facilis.

1. Compounds in ceps, fer, ger, dicus, ficus, and volus deserve notice:

Parti-ceps, taking part; auri-fer, gold-bearing; armi-ger, carrying arms; fāti-dicus, predicting fate; mīri-ficus, causing wonder; bene-volus, well-wishing.

Note.—Ceps (for cap-s) is from the root cap in capit, to take; fer, from fer in fero, to bear; ger, from ger in gero, to carry; dicus (for dic-o-s), from dic in dico, to make known; ficus (for fac-o-s), from fac in facio, to make; volus (for vol-o-s), from vol in volo, to wish.

- 343. Compound Nouns and Adjectives are divided according to signification into three classes:
- I. DETERMINATIVE COMPOUNDS, in which the second part is qualified by the first:

Inter-rex, interrex; meri-dies, midday; bene-volus, well-wishing; permagnus, very great; in-dignus, unworthy.

II. OBJECTIVE COMPOUNDS, in which the second part is limited by the first as object:

Prin-ceps, taking the first place; belli-ger, waging war; $j\bar{u}$ -dex, judge, one who dispenses (makes known) justice; homi- $c\bar{\iota}da$, one who slays a man; agri-cola, one who tills the field. See other examples in 342, 1.

III. Possessive Compounds, in origin mostly adjectives. They desig-

¹ O is dropped in remex, and s in judex; see 27; 36, 3, note 3.

² A, weakened to i, unites with the preceding i, forming \(\bar{i}\).

³ N dropped, and o weakened to i; see 36, 3, note 3.

⁴ The stem-vowel o of agro is weakened to i: agri; see 22.

⁵ From medius and dies.

VERBS.

175

nate qualities or attributes as possessed by some person or thing, and are often best rendered by supplying having or possessing:

Aeni-pēs, having bronze feet; ¹ celeri-pēs, swift-footed; āli-pēs, wing-footed, having wings for feet; māgn-animus, having a great soul; ūn-animus, having one mind; long-aevus, of great age, having a long life.

344. Compound Verbs.—Verbs in general are compounded only with prepositions, originally adverbs:²

Ab- $e\bar{o}$, to go away; ex- $e\bar{o}$, to go out; $pr\bar{o}d$ - $e\bar{o}$, to go forth; con- $voc\bar{o}$, to call together; $d\bar{e}$ - $cid\bar{o}$, to fall off; prae- $d\bar{o}c\bar{o}$, to foretell; re- $d\bar{u}c\bar{o}$, to lead back; re- $fic\bar{i}c\bar{o}$, to repair, to make anew.³

1. Faciō and fīō may also unite with verbal stems in e:

Cale-faciō, to make warm; cale-fīō, to be made warm, become warm; lābe-faciō, to cause to totter; pate-faciō, to open, cause to be open.

2. Verbs are often united with other words in writing without strictly forming compounds:

Manū mittō or manū-mittō, to emancipate, let go from the hand; satis faciō or satis-faciō, to satisfy, do enough for; animum ad-vertō or anim-advertō, to notice, turn the mind to.

3. Verbs in $fic\bar{o}$ and $fact\bar{o}$, like the following, are best explained not as compounds but as denominatives: ⁴

Aedi-ficō, to build, from aedifex; ampli-ficō,4 to enlarge; cale-factō, to make warm, from cate-factus.

- 4. Verbs compounded with prepositions often undergo certain vowel-changes:
- 1) Short a and e generally become i: habeō, ad-hibeō; teneō, con-tineō. But a sometimes becomes e or u: carpō, dē-cerpō; calcō, con-culcō.
 - 2) Ae becomes ī: caedo, in-cīdo.
 - 3) Au generally becomes ō or ū: plaudō, ex-plōdō; claudō, in-clūdō.
- 5. Form and Meaning of Prepositions in Composition.—The following facts are added for reference:
- $\mathbf{\hat{A}}$, \mathbf{ab} , $\mathbf{abs.}$ —1. Form: \bar{a} before m and v, and sometimes before f; abs before c, q, t, and, with the loss of b, also before p s ; au in au-fer \bar{a} and au-fugi \bar{a} ; $a\bar{b}$ before the other consonants, and before vowels.—2. Meaning: (1) 'away,' 'off': \bar{a} -mitt \bar{b} , to send away; abs-cond \bar{b} , to hide away; as-port \bar{b} ,

² The words thus formed are strictly compounds of verbs with adverbs, as the original type of these compounds was formed before the adverb became a preposition.

 $^{^1}$ Observe the force of the compound. Aenus pēs means a brazen foot, but aeni-pēs means having brazen feet; see also $\bf 340,\,III.,\,note.$

³ Observe in these examples the strict adverbial use of the particles ab, ex, etc., away, out, etc. Prepositions, on the other hand, always denote relations, and are auxiliary to the case-endings; see 307, foot-note.

⁴ In some of these the primitive is not found in actual use.

⁵ As abs-pello, as-pello, to drive away.

to carry off; au- $fugi\bar{o}$, to flee away; ab-sum, to be away; ab- $e\bar{o}$, to go away; ab- $fici\bar{o}$ or ab- $ici\bar{o}$, to throw away; (2) in adjectives, generally negative: \bar{a} - $m\bar{e}ns$, without mind, frantic; ab-similis, unlike.

Ad.—1. Form: ad before vowels, and before b, d, f, h, j, m, n, q, and v, sometimes before g, l, r, and s, rarely before p and t; d assimilated before c, generally before p and t, and sometimes before g, l, q, r, and s; generally dropped before gn, sc, sp, and st.2—2. Meaning: 'to,' 'toward,' 'to one's self'; 'on,' 'at,' 'near,' 'by'; 'besides': $ad-d\bar{u}c\bar{v}$, to lead to; $ac-cid\bar{v}$, to fall to, happen; $ad-move\bar{o}$, to move toward; $ac-cipi\bar{o}$, to receive, take to one's self; $ac-cing\bar{o}$, to gird on; $ad-latr\bar{o}$ or $al-latr\bar{o}$, to bark at; ad-sum, to be present cr near; $ad-st\bar{o}$ or $a-st\bar{o}$, to stand near, to stand by; $ad-disc\bar{o}$, to learn besides.

Ante.—1. Form: unchanged except in anti-cipō, 'to take beforehand,' and in composition with stō: ante-stō or anti-stō, to stand before.—2. Meaning: 'before,' 'beforehand': ante-currō, to run before; ante-habeō, to prefer—lit., to have or hold before.

Circum.—1. Form: generally unchanged, but m is sometimes dropped in compounds of $e\bar{o}$, to go: $circum-e\bar{o}$ or $circu-e\bar{o}$, to go around.—2. Meaning: 'around,' 'about': $circum-mitt\bar{o}$, to send around.

Com.³—1. Form: com before b, m, p; co before vowels, 4h , and gn; 5 con or col before l; cor before r; con before the other consonants.—2. Meaning: (1) 'together,' 'with,' in various senses: com-bibo, to drink together; com-mittō, to let go together; co-eō, to go together; col-loquor, to talk with; con-flōgō, to contend with; (2) 'completely,' 'thoroughly': con-sūmō, to complete, make completely; con-citō, to rouse thoroughly; con-sūmō, to consume, take wholly; con-dēnsus, very dense.

Ē, **ex**.—1. Form: ex before vowels and before c, h, p, q, q, s, r, t, and with assimilation before f; s \(\tilde{e}\) before the other consonants. —2. Meaning: (1) 'out,' 'forth,' 'without,' implying 'freedom from': ex-e\(\tilde{o}\), to go out, go forth; ex-cad\(\tilde{o}\), to fall out; \(\tilde{e}\)-d\(\tilde{o}\), to put forth; ex-sanguis, without blood, bloodless; ex-oner\(\tilde{o}\), to unload, disburden; (2) 'thoroughly,' 'completely,' 'successfully': ex-\(\tilde{u}\)row, to burn up; \(\tilde{e}\)-disc\(\tilde{o}\), to learn by heart; ef-fici\(\tilde{o}\), to effect, do successfully; \(\tilde{e}\)-d\(\tilde{u}\)rus, very hard.

In.-1. Form: n sometimes assimilated before l, often before m^{10} and r;

¹ See foot-note 1, p. 20.

² Sometimes retained: ad-gnosco or ā-gnosco; ad-sto or a-sto.

³ An earlier form for cum.

⁴ A contraction often takes place: $co-ag\bar{\sigma}$, $c\bar{\sigma}-g\bar{\sigma}$. Com is sometimes retained before e or i, and co or con is used before i=ji: $com-ed\bar{\sigma}$, com-itor, $co-ici\bar{\sigma}$ or $con-ici\bar{\sigma}=con-iici\bar{\sigma}$ or $con-jici\bar{\sigma}$; see foot-note 1, p. 20.

⁵ Cō also appears in cō-nectō, cō-nīveō, cō-nītor, and cō-nūbium.

But ē-pōtō and ē-pōtus; ex-scendō or ē-scendō.

⁷ Sis sometimes dropped after x: exspecto or ex-pecto.

⁸ C before f is not recommended; ef-fero is better than ec-fero.

⁹ But ex-lex.

 $^{^{10}}$ Im is the approved form before b, p, and m, especially in $im\text{-}per\bar{u}tor$, $im\text{-}per\bar{v}$, and im-perium.

often changed to m before b and p; in other situations unchanged.—2. Meaning: 'in,' 'into,' 'on,' 'at,' 'against': $in\text{-}col\bar{o}$, $t\bar{o}$ dwell in; $in\text{-}e\bar{o}$, to go into; $im\text{-}migr\bar{o}$, to move into; $in\text{-}n\bar{i}tor$, to lean on; in-tueor, to look at; $ir\text{-}r\bar{i}de\bar{o}$, to laugh at; $im\text{-}p\bar{u}gn\bar{o}$, to fight against.

Inter.—1. Form: unchanged, except in intel-lego, to understand.—2. Meaning: 'between,' sometimes involving interruption,' 'together': intervenio, to come between, intervene; inter-dico, to forbid, interdict; internecto, to tie together.

Ob.—1. Form: b assimilated before c, f, g, and p; dropped in o-mitt \bar{o} , to omit, and in o-peri \bar{o} , to cover; in other situations generally unchanged.²—2. Meaning: (1) 'before,' 'in the way,' 'toward,' 'against,' especially of an obstruction or opposition: of-fer \bar{o} , to bring before; ob-st \bar{o} , to stand in the way; oc-curr \bar{o} , to run toward, run to meet; op-p $\bar{u}gn\bar{o}$, to attack, fight against; (2) 'down,' 'completely': oc-c $\bar{c}d\bar{o}$, to cut down, kill; op-pri $m\bar{o}$, to press down, to overwhelm.

Per.—1. Form: generally unchanged, but r is sometimes assimilated before l_i and is dropped before j in compounds of $j\bar{u}r\bar{v}$, as $p\bar{v}$ -j-i0 swear falsely.—2. Meaning: 'through,' 'thoroughly,' sometimes in a bad sense with the idea of breaking through, disregarding: per-leg \bar{v} , to read through; per-disc \bar{v} , to learn thoroughly; per-fidus, perfidious, breaking faith.

Post.—1. Form: unchanged, except in $p\bar{o}$ - $m\bar{e}rium$, the open space on either side of the city-wall, and $p\bar{o}s$ - $mer\bar{e}di\bar{a}nus$, of the afternoon.—2. Meaning: 'after,' 'behind': post- $hab\bar{e}\bar{o}$, to place after, have after, esteem less.

Prō, prōd.—1. Form: $pr\bar{o}$ is the usual form, both before vowels and before consonants; $pr\bar{o}d$, the original form, is retained in a few words before vowels. —2. Meaning: 'forth,' 'forward,' 'before,' 'for': $pr\bar{o}d$ - $e\bar{o}$, to go forth or forward; $pr\bar{o}$ - $eurr\bar{o}$, to run forward; $pr\bar{o}$ - $p\bar{u}gn\bar{o}$, to fight in front of, fight for; pro- $hibe\bar{o}$, to hold aloof, i. e., out of one's reach, hence to prohibit; $pr\bar{o}$ - $mitt\bar{o}$, to send forth, to hold out as a promise, to promise.

Sub.—1. Form: b assimilated before c, f, g, and p, and often before m and r; dropped before sp; in other situations unchanged. The form subs, shortened to sus, occurs in a few words: sus-cipiō, sus-pendō.—2. Meaning: 'under,' 'down,' 'from under,' 'up'; 'in place of,' 'secretly'; 'somewhat,' 'slightly': sub-eō, to go under; sub-lābor, to slip down; sub-dūcō, to draw from under, withdraw; sus-cipiō, to undertake; sus-citō, to lift up, arouse;

 $^{^1}$ It is used in several compounds referring to death: inter-eo, to die; inter-ficio, to kill.

² Obs seems to occur in a few words: obs-olēscō, os-tendō for obs-tendō (b dropped), though these words are sometimes otherwise explained; thus ob-solēscō, as a compound of solēscō from soleō.

³ As per-lego, pel-lego; per-licio, pel-licio; but per is preferable.

⁴ For per-jūrō.

⁵ Post-merīdiānus is also used; pō-merīdiānus is not approved, though it occurs.

⁶ As in prod-eo, prod-igo, prod-igus, and before e in the compound of sum: prod-es, prod-est, etc.

Mostly in adjectives: sub-absurdus, somewhat absurd; sub-dolus, somewhat crafty; sub-impudens, somewhat impudent; sub-invisus, somewhat odious.

sub-stituō, to put in place of, to substitute; sub-ripiō, to take away secretly; sub-rīdeō, to smile, laugh slightly; sub-difficilis, somewhat difficult.

Trāns.—1. Form: it generally drops s before s, and it often drops ns before d, j, l, m, n; it is otherwise unchanged.—2. Meaning: 'across,' 'through,' 'completely': $tr\bar{a}ns$ - $curr\bar{o}$, to run across; $tr\bar{a}$ - $d\bar{u}e\bar{o}$, to lead across; $tr\bar{a}n$ - $sili\bar{o}$, to leap across; $tr\bar{a}ns$ - $ili\bar{o}$, to leap across; $tr\bar{a}ns$ - $ili\bar{o}$, to finish, do completely or thoroughly—lit., to drive through.

6. FORM AND MEANING OF THE INSEPARABLE PREPOSITIONS.—The following facts are added for reference:

Ambi, amb.2—1. Form: amb before vowels; ambi, am, or an, before consonants.—2. Meaning: 'around,' 'on both sides,' 'in two directions': amb-iō, to go round; amb-igō, to act in two ways, move in different directions, to hesitate; am-putō, to cut around or off; an-quīrō, to search round.

Dis, dI.—1. Form: dis before, p, q, t, before s followed by a vowel, and, with assimilation, before f; but dir for dis before a vowel or h; $d\bar{\imath}$ in most other situations; but both dis and $d\bar{\imath}$ occur before $j.^5$ —2. Meaning: 'apart,' 'asunder,' 'between,' sometimes negative $\bar{\imath}$ and sometimes intensive: $distine\delta$, to hold apart; $d\bar{\imath}-d\bar{\imath}c\delta$, to lead apart, divide; dif-fugi $\bar{\imath}$, to flee asunder, or in different directions; $d\bar{\imath}r$ -im $\bar{\imath}$, to take in pieces, destroy; dis-senti $\bar{\imath}$, to think differently, dissent; $d\bar{\imath}$ -j $\bar{\imath}adic\bar{\imath}$, to judge between; dis-plice $\bar{\imath}$, to displease, not to please; dif-ficilis, difficult, not easy; $d\bar{\imath}$ -laud $\bar{\imath}$, to praise highly.

In.—1. Form: n dropped before gn; otherwise like the preposition in.—2. Meaning: 'not,' 'un': i-gnōscō, not to know, not to recollect, to pardon; im-memor, unmindful; in-imīcus, unfriendly.

Por, for **port**.^e—1. Form: r assimilated before l and s; in other situations, por.—2. Meaning: 'forth,' 'forward,' 'near': pol-liceor, to hold forth, offer, promise; pos-sideō, to possess; por-rigō, to hold out or forth, to offer.

Red, re.-1. Form: red before vowels, before h, and in red-dō; re in other situations.—2. Meaning: 'back,' 'again,' 'in return': 10 red-eō, to go back; re-ficiō, to repair, make again; red-amō, to love in return.

Sēd, 11 sē.—1. Form: sēd before vowels; sē before consonants.—2. Meaning: 'apart,' 'aside': sē-cēdō, to go apart, secede; sē-pōnō, to put aside or apart.

Note.—For the Composition of Adverbs, see 304, I., 2; 304, II., 1, note; 304, IV., note 2.

Or before i = j or ji; see foot-note 1, p. 20.

² Compare ambŏ, both, and ἀμφί, around, on both sides.

³ An before c, q, f, and t.

⁴ For amb-eo.

⁵ Dis-jungo, dī-jūdico.

⁶ Both literally 'apart' in respect to place or position, and figuratively 'apart' in sentiment or opinion.

Especially in adjectives: dis-par, unequal; dis-similis, unlike.

⁸ Greek πορτί, προτί, πρός, to, toward; see Curtius, 381.

⁹ To sit near and so to control.

¹⁰ Sometimes negative, not, un-: re-sīgnō, to unseal; re-clūdō, to open.

¹¹ Probably an old ablative of suī and identical with sed, but.

PART THIRD. S Y N T A X.

CHAPTER I.

SYNTAX OF SENTENCES.

I. CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

- 345. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.
- 346. A sentence is a combination of words expressing either a single thought or two or more thoughts.
 - 347. A SIMPLE SENTENCE expresses a single thought:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world. Cic.

348. A COMPLEX SENTENCE expresses one leading thought with one or more dependent thoughts:

Dônec eris fēlīx, multōs numerābis amīcōs, so long as you shall be prosperous, you will number many friends. Ovid.

NOTE 1.—In this example two simple sentences—(1) 'you will be prosperous,' and (2) 'you will number many friends'—are so united that the first only specifies the time of the second: You will number many friends (when?), so long as you shall be prosperous. The parts thus united are called Clauses or Members.

NOTE 2.—The part of the complex sentence which makes complete sense of itself—multon numerables amicos—is called the Principal or Independent Clause; and the part which is dependent upon it—donec eris felix—is called the Subordinate or Dependent Clause.

349. A COMPOUND SENTENCE expresses two or more independent thoughts:

Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, the sun hastens to its setting and the mountains are shaded. Verg.

- 350. A DECLARATIVE SENTENCE has the form of an assertion: Miltiades accused. Nep.
- 351. An Interrogative Sentence has the form of a question:

Quis loquitur, who speaks? Ter. Quis non paupertatem extimescit, who does not fear poverty? Cic. Quid ais, what do you say? Ter. Ec-

quid¹ animadvertis silentium, do you not notice the silence? Cic. Qualis est oratio, what kind of an oration is it? Cic. Quot sunt, how many are there? Plaut. Ubi sunt, where are they? Cic. Ubinam gentium sumus, where in the world are we? Cic. Visne fortunam experiri meam, do you wish to try my fortune? Cic. Nonne nobilitari volunt, do they not wish to be renowned? Cic. Num igitur pecamus, are we then at fault? Cic.

1. Interrogative Words.—Interrogative sentences generally contain some interrogative word—either an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb, or one of the interrogative particles: 2 -ne, nonne, num; see examples above.

Note 1.—Questions with -ne ask for information: Scribitne, 'is he writing?' Ne is sometimes appended to utrum, num, or an, without affecting their meaning, and sometimes inserted in the clause after utrum:

Numne ferre arma debuerunt, ought they to have borne arms? Cic. Utrum taceamne, an praedicem, shall I be silent, or shall I speak? Ter.

Note 2.—Questions with nonne expect the answer yes: Nonne scribit, 'is he not writing?'

NOTE 3.—Questions with *num* expect the answer *no*: Num scrībit, 'is he writing?' NOTE 4.—For questions with an, see 353, note 4.

2. The particle -ne is always appended to some other word, generally to the emphatic word of the sentence, i. e., to the word upon which the question especially turns; appended to $n\bar{o}n$, it forms $n\bar{o}nne$:

Visne experiri, do you wish to try? Cic. Tüne id veritus es, did you fear this? Cic. Omniene pecûnia solûta est, has all the money been paid? Cic. Hōcinest (= hōcine est³) officium patris, is this the duty of a father? Ter. Unquamne vidīstī, have you even seen? Cic. Nonne volunt, do they not wish? Cic.

3. Sometimes no interrogative word is used, especially in impassioned discourse:

Crēditis, do you believe? Verg. Ego non potero, shall I not be able? Cic.

4. An emphatic tandem, meaning indeed, pray, then, often occurs in interrogative sentences:

Quod genus tandem est istud glöriae, what kind of glory is that, pray? Cic.

Note 1.—Nam, appended to an interrogative, also adds emphasis:

Numnam haec audīvit, did he hear this, pray? Ter.

Note 2.—For Two Interrogatives in the same clause, and for an Interrogative with tantus, see 454, 3 and 4.

352. Answers.—Instead of replying to a question of fact with a simple particle meaning yes or no, the Latin usually repeats the verb or some emphatic word, often with $pr\bar{o}rsus$, $v\bar{e}r\bar{o}$, and the like, or if negative, with $n\bar{o}n$:

Dixitne causam, did he state the cause? Dixit, he stated it. Cic. Possumusne tuti esse, can we be safe? Non possumus, we can not. Cic.

¹ Eequid, though the neuter accusative of an interrogative pronoun, has become in effect a mere particle with the force of $n\bar{o}nne$.

² See 311, 8, foot-note.

³ See 27, note.

Note 1.—Sometimes the simple particle is used—affirmatively, sānē, etiam, ita, vērē, sertē, etc.; negatively, nēn, minimē, etc.

Venitne, has he come? Non, no. Plaut.

Note 2.—Sometimes, without an actual repetition of the emphatic word, some equivalent expression is used:

Tuam vestem detraxit tibi, did he strip off your coat? Factum, he did-lit., done, for it was done. Ter.

353. DOUBLE OF DISJUNCTIVE QUESTIONS offer a choice or alternative, and generally take one of the following forms:

1. The first clause has utrum or -ne, and the second an:

Utrum ea vestra an nostra culpa est, is that your fault or ours? Cic. Romamne venio an hīc maneō, do I go to Rome, or do I remain here? Cic.

2. The first clause omits the particle, and the second has an, or anne:

Eloquar an sileam, shall I utter it, or keep silence? Verg. Gabīniō dīcam anne Pompēiō, to Gabinius, shall I say, or to Pompey? Cic.

Note 1 .- Other forms are rare.1

Note 2.—Utrum sometimes stands before a disjunctive question with -ne in the first clause and an in the second:

Utrum, taceamne, an praedicem, which, shall I be silent, or shall I speak? Ter.

NOTE 3.—When the second clause is negative, the particle generally unites with the negative, giving annon or necne:

Sunt haec tua verba necne, are these your words or not? Cic.

Note 4.—By the omission of the first clause, the second often stands alone with an, in the sense of or, implying a negative answer:

An hoc timemus, or do we fear this? Liv.

Note 5.—Disjunctive questions sometimes have three or more members: 2

Gabīniō anne Pompēiō an utrīque, to Gabinius, or Pompey, or both? Cic.

NOTE 6.—Disjunctive questions inquire which alternative is true. These must be distinguished—

1) From such single questions as inquire whether either alternative is true:

Sölem dīcam aut lūnam deum, shall I call the sun or the moon a god? 3 Cic.

2) From two separate questions, introduced respectively by num, implying a negative answer, and by an, implying an affirmative answer:

Num furis? an lūdis mē? are you mad? or do you not rather mock me? Hor.

354. An Imperative Sentence has the form of a command, exhortation, or entreaty:

Jüstitiam cole, cultivate justice. Cic.

355. An Exclamatory Sentence has the form of an exclamation:

Reliquit quos viros, what men he has left! Cic.

¹ Thus, in Vergil, -ne occurs in both clauses, also -ne in the first with seu in the second. In Horace, -ne occurs in the second clause with no particle in the first.

² Cicero, in his oration $Pr\bar{o}$ $Dom\bar{o}$, xxii., 57, has a question of this kind extended to eight clauses, the first introduced by utrum and each of the others by an.

³ Observe that in this sense aut, not an, is used.

NOTE 1.—Many sentences introduced by interrogative pronouns, adjectives, or adverbs may be so spoken as to become exclamatory:

Quibus gaudiīs exsultābis, in what joys will you exult! Cic.

Note 2.—Some declarative and imperative sentences readily become exclamatory.

Note 3.-Exclamatory sentences are often elliptical.

II. ELEMENTS OF SENTENCES.

- 356. The SIMPLE SENTENCE in its MOST SIMPLE FORM consists of two distinct parts, expressed or implied:
 - 1. The Subject, or that of which it speaks;
 - 2. The PREDICATE, or that which is said of the subject: .

Cluilius moritur, Cluilius dies.1 Liv.

357. The SIMPLE SENTENCE in its MOST EXPANDED FORM consists only of these same parts with their various modifiers:

In hīs castrīs Cluīlius, Albānus rēx, moritur, Cluīlius, the Alban king. dies in this camp.² Liv.

- 1. The subject and predicate of a sentence are called the *Principal* or *Essential* elements; their modifiers, the *Subordinate* elements.
- 2. The elements, whether principal or subordinate, may be either simple or complex:
 - 1) Simple, when not modified by other words; see 358.
 - 2) Complex, when thus modified; see 359.

358. The SIMPLE SUBJECT of a sentence must be a noun, a pronoun, or some word or words used as a noun:

Rex decrevit, the king decreed. Nep. Ego scribo, I write. Cic. Ibam, I was walking. Hor. Vicimus, we have conquered. Cic. Video idem valet, the word video has the same meaning. Quint.

359. The Complex Subject consists of the simple subject with its modifiers:

Populus Românus decrevit, the Roman people decreed. Cic. Cluilius rêx moritur, Cluilius the king dies. Liv. Rex Rutulorum, the king of the Rutuli. Liv. Liber de officies, the book on duties. Cic.

Note 1 .- The subject is thus modified-

- 1) By an ADJECTIVE: Populus Romanus.
- 2) By a noun in apposition: Cluilius rex.
- 3) By a GENITIVE: Rex Rutulorum.
- 4) By a noun with a preposition: Liber de officies.

1 Here Cluilius is the subject, and moritur the predicate.

² Here Cluīlius, Albānus rēx, is the subject in its enlarged or modified form, and in hīs castrīs moritur is the predicate in its enlarged or modified form.

³ A pronominal subject is always contained or implied in the personal ending. Thus m in iba-m is a pronominal stem = ego, and is the true original subject of the verb. See also 247; 368, 2, foot-note.

NOTE 2.—A noun or pronoun used to explain or identify another noun or pronoun denoting the same person or thing, is called an Appositive; as Cluilius rex, 'Cluilius the king.'

Note 3 .- Any noun may be modified like the subject.

Note 4.—Sometimes adverbs occur as modifiers of nouns:

Non ignārī sumus ante malorum, we are not ignorant of past misfortunes. Verg.

360. The SIMPLE PREDICATE must be either a verb, or the copula *sum* with a noun or adjective:

Miltiadës est accūsātus, Miltiades was accused. Nep. Tū es testis, you are a witness. Cic. Fortūna caeca est, fortune is blind. Cic.

NOTE 1.—Like sum, several other verbs sometimes unite with a noun or an adjective to form the predicate; see 362, 2. A noun or an adjective thus used is called a *Predicate Noun* or *Predicate Adjective*.

Note 2.—Sum with an adverb sometimes forms the predicate:

Omnia rēctē sunt, all things are RIGHT. Cic.

361. The COMPLEX PREDICATE consists of the simple predicate with its modifiers:

Miltiades Athènās liberāvit, Miltiades liberated Athens. Nep. Laborī student, they devote themselves to labor. Caes. Mē rogāvit sententiam, he asked me my opinion. Cic. Pons iter hostibus dedit, the bridge furnished a passage to the enemy. Liv. Bella fèliciter gessit, he waged wars successfully. Cic. In hīs castrīs moritur, he dies (where?) in this camp. Liv. Vēre convēnēre, they assembled (when?) in the spring. Liv.

- 1. The Predicate, when a verb, is thus modified-
- 1) By an Accusative: Athenas liberavit.
- 2) By a DATIVE: Labori student.
- 3) By two Accusatives: Mē rogāvit sententiam.
- 4) By an Accusative and a Dative: Iter hostibus dedit.
- 5) By an Adverb: Feliciter gessit.
- 6) By an Adverbial Phrase: In his castris moritur.

NOTE 1.—Still other modifiers occur with special predicates; see 406, 409, 410, 422.

NOTE 2.—No one predicate admits all the modifiers here given. Thus only *transitive* verbs admit an Accusative (371); only *intransitive* verbs, a Dative alone (384, I.); and only *special* verbs, two Accusatives (374).

2. A PREDICATE Noun is modified like the subject:

Haec virtus omnium est regina virtutum, this virtue is the queen of all virtues. Cic. See also 359, notes 1 and 3.

- 3. A PREDICATE ADJECTIVE is modified-
- 1) By an Adverb: Satis humilis est, he is sufficiently humble. Liv.
- 2) By an Oblique Case: Avidī laudis fuērunt, they were desirous of praise. Cic. Omnī aetātī mors est commūnis, death is common to every age. Cic. Dīgnī sunt amīcitiā, they are worthy of friendship. Cic.

Note.—Any adjective may be modified like the predicate adjective:

Eques Romanus satis litteratus, a Roman knight sufficiently literary. Cic.

CHAPTER II.

SYNTAX OF NOUNS.

SECTION I.

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS.

RULE I.-Predicate Nouns.1

362. A noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in Case:

Brūtus custos i lībertātis fuit, Brutus was the guardian of liberty. Liv. Servius rēx est dēclārātus, Servius was declared king. Liv. Orestem sē esse dixit, he said that he was Orestes. Cic. See 360, note 1.

Note.—This rule applies also to nouns predicated of pronouns: 4

Ego sum nūntius, I am a messenger. Liv.

1. A Predicate Noun with different forms for different genders must agree in GENDER as well as in Case:

Üsus magister 5 est, experience is an instructor. Cic. Historia est magistra 5 (not magister), history is an instructress. Cic.

- 2. PREDICATE Nouns are most frequent with the following verbs:
- 1) With sum and a few intransitive verbs—ēvādō, exsistō, appāreō, and the like:

Homo magnus evaserat, he had become (turned out) a great man. Cic. Exstitit rindex libertatis, he became (stood forth) the defender of liberty. Cic. See also examples under the rule.

2) With Passive Verbs of appointing, making, naming, regarding, esteeming, and the like:

Servius rex est declaratus, Servius was declared King. Liv. Mundus eivitās existimātur, the world is regarded as a state. Cio.

NOTE 1.—In the poets, Predicate Nouns are used with great freedom after verbs of a great variety of significations. Thus with $audi\bar{o} = appellor$:

Rew audisti, you have been called king; i. e., have heard yourself so called. Hor. Ego divum incedo regina, I walk as queen of the gods. Verg.

¹ For convenience of reference, the Rules will be presented in a body on page 324,

² For Predicate Genitive, see 401.

³ In these examples *custos*, *rēx*, and *Orestem* are all predicate nouns, and agree in case respectively with *Brūtus*, *Servius*, and *sē* (536).

⁴ As all substantive pronouns have the construction of nouns; see 182.

⁵ Observe that in ūsus magister est, the masculine form, magister, is used to agree in gender with ūsus; while in historia est magistra, the feminine form, magistra, is used to agree in gender with historia.

Note 2 .- For Predicate Accusative, see 373, 1.

Note 3.—The Dative of the object for which (390), $pr\bar{o}$ with the Ablative, and $loc\bar{o}$ or numer \bar{o} (or in numer \bar{o}) with the Genitive, are often kindred in force to Predicate Nouns: hosti, $pr\bar{o}$ hoste, $loc\bar{o}$ hostis, numer \bar{o} (or in numer \bar{o}) hostium, 'for an enemy,' or 'as an enemy':

Fuit omnibus bono, it was a benefit (lit., for a benefit) to all. Cic. Sicilia nöbīs prō aerāriō fuit, Sicily was a treasury (for a treasury) for us. Cic. Quaestori parentis locō fuit, he was a parent (lit., in the place of a parent) to the questor. Cic. Is tibī parentis numerō fuit, he was a parent to you. Cic. See also Predicate Gentitive, 401.

3. PREDICATE NOUNS are used not only with finite verbs, but also with Infinitives and Participles, and sometimes without verb or participle:

Dēclārātus rēx Numa, Numa having been declared king. Liv. Canīniō cōnsule, Caninius being consul. Cic. See 431, also Orestem under the rule.

Note 1.—For a Predicate Nominative after the Infinitive esse, see 536, 2, 1).

Note 2.—For an Infinitive or a Clause instead of a Predicate Noun; see 539; 501.

RULE II.—Appositives.

363. An Appositive agrees in Case with the noun or pronoun which it qualifies:

Cluīlius rēx moritur, Cluilius the King dies. Liv. Urbēs Karthāgē atque Numantia, the cities Carthage and Numantia. Cic. Saguntum, foederātam cīvitātem, expūgnāvit, he took Saguntum, an allied town. Liv. See 359, note 2.

1. An Appositive with different forms for different genders must agree in Gender as well as in Case:

Cluilius rēz, Cluilius the King. Liv. Venus rēgīna, Venus the QUEEN.

2. An Appositive often agrees with the pronoun implied in the ending of the verb:

Hostis 2 hostem occidere volui, I, an enemy, wished to slay an enemy. Liv.

- 3. Appositives are kindred in force-
- 1) Generally to Relative clauses:
- . Cluīlius rēx, Cluilius (who was) the King. Liv.
 - 2) Sometimes to other Subordinate clauses, 3 as Temporal, Concessive, etc.:
- Fūrius puer didicit, Furius learned when he was a boy of as a boy. Cic. Jūnius aedem dictātor dēdicāvit, Junius dedicated the temple when dictator. Liv.
 - 4. By Synesis 4—a Construction according to Sense:

¹ See 362, 1, foot-note.

² Hostis agrees with ego, implied in $volu\bar{\imath}$, 'I wished'; see 358, foot-note.

³ This construction is sometimes called Adverbial Apposition.

^{*} See Figures of Speech, 636, IV., 4.

1) Possessives admit a Genitive in apposition with the Genitive of the pronoun implied in them:

Tua ipsžus 1 amīcitia, your own friendship. Cic. Meum sõlžus peccātum, my fault alone. Cic. Nõmen meum absentis, my name in my absence. Cic.

2) Locatives admit as an Appositive a Locative Ablative (411, 425), with or without a preposition:

Albae constiterunt in urbe opportună, they halted at Alba, a convenient city. Cic. Corinthi, Achaiae urbe, at Corinth, a city of Achaia. Tac.

5. CLAUSES.—A noun or pronoun may be in apposition with a clause, or a clause in apposition with a noun or pronoun:

Nos, id³ quod debet, patria delectat, our country delights us, as it ought. Cic. Omnes interfici jussit, mūnīmentum³ ad praesens, he ordered them all to be put to death, a means of protection for the present. Tac. For clauses in apposition with nouns or pronouns, see 499, 3; 501, III.

364. Partitive Apposition.—The parts may be in apposition with the whole, or the whole in apposition with the parts:

Duo reges, ille bello, hto pace, civitatem auxerunt, two kings advanced the state, the former by war, the latter by peace. Liv. Ptolemaeus et Cleopatra, reges Aegypti, Ptolemy and Cleopatra, rulers of Egypt. Liv.

SECTION II.

GENERAL VIEW OF CASES.

365. Cases, in accordance with their general force, may be arranged and characterized as follows:

I.	Nominative,	Case of the Subject.
II.	Vocative,	Case of Address.
III.	Accusative,	Case of Direct Object.
IV.	Dative,	Case of Indirect Object.
V.	Genitive,	Case of Adjective Relations.
VI.	Ablative,	Case of Adverbial Relations. ⁵

¹ Ipsĭus agrees with tuī (of you) involved in tua; solĭus and absentis, with meī involved in meum. The Genitive of ipse, solus, ūnus, and omnis is often thus used.

² As a *Locative Ablative* is a genuine *Locative* in sense, there is no special irregularity here, and *in urbe opportūnā* may be explained as a separate modifier of the verb: 'They halted at Alba, at a convenient city.' Thus explained, it is not an appositive at all.

4 In the first example, ille and hic, the parts, are in apposition with rēgēs, the whole; but in the second example, rēgēs, the whole, is in apposition with the parts, Ptolemaeus

and Cleopatra.

³ Id quod debet, lit., THAT which it owes. Id and munimentum are in apposition respectively with nos delectat and omnes interfice, and are best explained as Accusatives. A Nominative apparently in apposition with a clause is generally best explained either as an appositive to some Nominative, or as the subject of a separate clause.

⁵ This arrangement is adopted in the discussion of the cases, because, it is thought, it will best present the force of the several cases and their relation to each other.

366. The Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Vocative have probably retained with very slight modifications their original force as developed in the mother tongue from which the Latin was derived.

367. The Ablative combines within itself the separate offices of three cases which were originally distinct:²

- 1. The Ablative proper, denoting the relation from—the place from which.
- 2. The Locative, denoting the relation in, AT—the place in or AT which.
- 3. The Instrumental, denoting the relation WITH, BY—the instrument or means WITH or BY which.

SECTION III.

NOMINATIVE.-VOCATIVE.

I. Nominative.

RULE III.-Subject Nominative.

368. The subject of a finite verb is put in the Nominative:

Servius rēgnāvit, Servius reigned. Liv. Patent portae, the gates are open. Cic. Rēx vīcit, the king conquered. Liv. Ego rēgēs ējēcī, vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

- 1. The subject is always a substantive, a pronoun, or some word or clause used substantively; 4 see examples under the rule.
- 2. A pronominal subject is always expressed or implied in the ending of the verb:⁵

¹ That is, in the primitive Indo-European tongue, from which have been derived, either directly or indirectly, not only the Latin, Greek, and Sanskrit, but also the English, French, German, and indeed nearly all the languages of modern Europe. Upon the general subject of *Cases*, their original formation and meaning, see Bopp, I., pp. 242-519; Merguet, pp. 17-117; Penka, Hübschmann, Holzweissig, Delbrück, and, among the earlier writers, Hartung, 'Ueber die Casus,' etc., and Rumpel, 'Casuslehre.'

² See Delbrück, 'Ablativ, Localis, Instrumentalis.'

³ For the Subject of the Infinitive, see **536**. For the Agreement of the verb with its subject, see **460**.

⁴ For clauses used substantively, see 540.

⁵ See 247. Thus mone \bar{v} means I (not you, he, or we, but I) instruct. Indeed, every verb contains a pronominal subject in itself, and in general it is necessary to add a separate subject only when it would otherwise be doubtful to whom the implied pronoun refers. Thus $r\bar{e}gn\bar{a}vit$, 'he reigned,' is complete of itself, if the context shows to

Discipulos moneo ut studia ament, I instruct pupils to love (that they may love) their studies. Quint. Non scholae, sed vitae discimus, we learn not for the school, but for life. Sen.

Note.—A separate pronominal subject may, however, be added for the sake of clearness, emphasis, or contrast, as in the fourth example under the rule.

3. The verb is sometimes omitted, when it can be readily supplied, especially if it is est or sunt:

Ecce tuae litterae, lo your letter (comes). Cic. Tot sententiae, there are (sunt) so many opinions. Ter. Consul profectus (est), the consul set out, Liv.

Note 1.—The verb facio is often omitted in short sentences and clauses:

Melius hī, quam võs, these have done better than you. Cic. Rēctē ille, he does rightly. Cic. Cotta fīnem, Cotta closed, līt., made an end. Cic. So also in Livy after nihil aliud (amplius, minus, etc.) quam, 'nothing other (more, less, etc.) than' = 'merely'; nihil praeterquam, 'nothing except' = 'merely': Nihil aliud quam stetērunt, they merely stood (did nothing other than). Liv.

Note 2.—Certain forms of expression often dispense with the verb:

Quid, what? quid enim, what indeed? quid ergō, what then? quid quod, what of the fact that? quid plūra, why more, or why shall I say more? nē plūra, not to say more; nē multa, not to say much; quid hoc ad mē, what is this to me? nihil ad rem, nothing to the subject.

Note 3 .- For the Predicate Nominative, see 362.

Note 4.—For the Nominative as an Appositive, see 363.

NOTE 5 .- For the Nominative in Exclamations, see 381, note 3.

II. VOCATIVE.

RULE IV .- Case of Address.

369. The name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative:

Perge, Laelī, proceed, Laelius. Cic. Quid est, Catilīna, why is it, Catiline? Cic. Tuum est, Servī, rēgnum, the kingdom is yours, Servius. Liv. Ō dīī immortālēs, O immortal gods. Cic.

1. An Interjection may or may not accompany the Vocative.

2. In poetry, and sometimes in prose, the Nominative in apposition with the subject occurs where we should expect the Vocative:

Audī tū, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban People. Liv.

3. Conversely, the Vocative by attraction sometimes occurs in poetry where we should expect the Nominative:

Quibus, Hector, ab öris exspectāte venīs, from what shores, Hector, do you anxiously awaited come? Verg. Macte novā virtūte, puer, a blessing on your new valor, boy (lit., be enlarged by; supply estō). Verg.

whom the pronoun he refers; if not, the noun must be added: $Servius \ regnavit$, lit., he, Servius, reigned, or Servius, he reigned. In the fourth example under the rule, ego and $v\bar{o}s$, though already implied in the form of the verb, are expressed for emphasis. In impersonal verbs the subject 'it,' in English, is implied in the personal ending t.

1 See preceding foot-note.

SECTION IV.

ACCUSATIVE.

370. The Accusative is used 1—

I. As the Direct Object of an Action;

II. In an Adverbial Sense—with or without Prepositions;

III. In Exclamations—with or without Interjections.

Note 1.-For the Predicate Accusative, see 362 and 373, 1.

Note 2.—For the Accusative in Apposition, see 363.

Note 3.—For the Accusative with Prepositions, see 433.

Note 4.—For the Accusative as the Subject of an Infinitive, see 536.

I. ACCUSATIVE AS DIRECT OBJECT.

RULE V.-Direct Object.

371. The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world. Cic. Līberā rem pūblicam, free the republic. Cic. Populī Rōmānī salūtem dēfendite, defend the safety of the Roman people. Cic.

I. The DIRECT OBJECT may be-

-1. An External Object, the person or thing on which the action of the verb is directly exerted, as salūtem above.

2. An Internal Object; i. e., one already contained or implied in the action itself. This embraces two varieties:

1) In a STRICT SENSE, the Cognate Accusative, an object having a meaning cognate or kindred to that of the verb:

Servitūtem servīre,2 to serve in bondage (lit., to serve A SERVITUDE). Ter.

2) In a freer sense, the Accusative of Effect, the object produced by the action:

Librum scribere, to write a Book. Cic.

Note.—Participles in *dus*, verbal adjectives in *bundus*, and in Plautus a few verbal nouns, occur with the accusative:

Vītābundus castra, avoiding the camp. Liv. Quid tibǐ hanc cūrātiŏst (cūrātiŏ est) ** rem = cūr hanc rem cūrās, what care have you of this?* Plaut.

2 The pupil will observe that the idea of servitūtem, 'servitude,' 'service,' is con-

tained in the verb servire, 'to serve,' 'to be a slave or servant.'

¹ The Accusative is probably the oldest of all the oblique cases known to our family of languages, and was therefore originally the sole modifier of the verb, expressing in a vague and general way several relations now recognized as distinct. This theory accounts for the great variety of constructions in which the Accusative is used in Latin. See Curtius, 'Zur Chronologie,' pp. 71–74; Holzweissig, pp. 84–88.

³ See 27, note.

II. The Cognate Accusative is generally—(1) a noun with an adjective or other modifier, or (2) a neuter pronoun or adjective. It is used quite freely both with *transitive* and with *intransitive* verbs, and sometimes even with verbs in the *passive* voice:

Eam vitam vivere, to live that life. Cic. Mirum somniare somnium, to dream a wonderful dream. Plant. Eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes. Cic. Hoe studet ūnum, he studies this one thing (this one study). Hor. Perfidum ridens Venus, Venus smiling a perfidious smile. Hor. Id assentior, I assent to this (I give this assent). Cic. Idem glòriārī, to make the same boast. Cic. Quid possunt, how powerful are they, or what power have they? Caes. Ea monēmur, we are admonished of these things. Cic. Nihil moti sunt, they were not at all moved. Liv.

Note.—Here may be mentioned the following kindred constructions:

Vox hominem sonat, the voice sounds human. Verg. Saltare Cyclopa, to dance the Cyclops. Hor. Longam viam ire, to go a long way. Verg. Bellum pügnäre, to fight a battle. Verg.

III. Special Verbs.—Many verbs of Feeling or Emotion, of Taste and Smell, admit the Accusative:

Honores desperat, he despairs of honors. Cic. Haec gemedant, they were sighing over these things. Cic. Detrimenta ridet, he laughs at losses. Hor. Olet unguenta, he has the odor of perfumes. Ter. Örätiö redolet antiquitätem, the oration smacks of antiquitx. Cic.

Note 1.—Such verbs are: $d\bar{e}sp\bar{e}r\bar{o}$, to despair of; $dole\bar{o}$, to grieve for; $gem\bar{o}$, to sigh over; $horre\bar{o}$, to shudder at; $lacrim\bar{o}$, to weep over; $maere\bar{o}$, to mourn over; $m\bar{v}ror$, to wonder at; $r\bar{v}de\bar{o}$, to laugh at; $siti\bar{o}$, to thirst for, etc.; $ole\bar{o}$, to have the odor of; $sapi\bar{o}$, to savor of, whether used literally or figuratively.³

Note 2.—Many verbs in Latin, as in English, are sometimes transitive and sometimes intransitive; see augeō, dūrō, incipiō, laxō, ruō, suppeditō, turbō, etc., in the Dictionary.

NOTE 3.—Many verbs which are usually rendered by transitive verbs in English are intransitive in Latin, and thus admit only an indirect object or some special construction; see 385.

Note 4.—The object of a transitive verb is often omitted, when it can be easily supplied: $move\bar{o} = move\bar{o} m\bar{e}$, 'I move (myself)'; $vertit = vertit s\bar{e}$, 'he turns (himself)':

Castrīs non movit, he did not move from his camp. Liv. Jam verterat fortūna. fortune had already changed. Liv.

Note 5 .- For the Passive Construction, see 464.

IV. An Infinitive or a Clause may be used as Direct Object:

Imperāre cupiunt, they desire to rule. Just. Opto ut id audiātis, I desire that you may hear this. Cic.

¹ Peccat, 'he makes a mistake'; idem peccat, 'he makes the same mistake,' where idem represents idem peccātum.

² Literally, we are admonished these things, i. e., these admonitions.

³ Observe that with the Accusative despero means not 'to despair,' but 'to despair of,' and is accordingly transitive; doleo, not 'to grieve,' but 'to grieve for,' etc. With some of the verbs here given the object is properly a Cognate Accusative.

372. Many Compounds of intransitive verbs with prepositions, especially compounds of verbs of motion with *circum*, *per*, *praeter*, *trāns*, and *super*, take the Accusative:

Murmur contionem perväsit, a murmur went through the assembly. Liv. Rhènum tränsièrunt, they crossed (went across) the Rhine. Caes. Circumstant senātum, they stand around the senate. Cic. Hèrèditātem obire, to enter upon the inheritance. Cic. Eās nātionès adire, to go to those nations. Caes. Undam innātāre, to float upon the wave. Verg. Tēla exire, 1 to avoid the weapons. Verg. Gallōs praecēdunt, they surpass the Gauls. Caes.

RULE VI.-Two Accusatives-Same Person.

373. Verbs of making, choosing, calling, regarding, showing, and the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing:

Hamilcarem imperatorem fecerunt, they made Hamilcar commander. Nep. Ancum regem populus creavit, the people elected Ancus king. Liv. Summum consilium appellarunt Senatum, they called their highest council Senate. Cic. Se praestitit propugnatorem libertatis, he showed himself the champion of liberty. Cic. Flaccum habuit collegam, he had Flaccus as colleague. Nep. Socrates totius mundi se civem arbitrabatur, Socrates considered himself a citizen of the whole world. Cic.

1. Predicate Accusative.—One of the two Accusatives is the *Direct Object*, and the other an essential part of the Predicate. The latter may be called a *Predicate Accusative*; see 362.

Note 1.—Habeō, 'to have,' admits two Accusatives, but when it means 'to regard,' it usually takes, instead of the Predicate Accusative, the Dative of the object for which (384), the Ablative with in or prō, or the Genitive with locō, numerō or in numerō: lūdibriō habēre, 'to regard as an object of ridicule'; prō hoste habēre, in hostibus habēre, locō hostium habēre, numerō or in numerō hostium habēre, ito regard as an enemy.' These constructions also occur with other verbs meaning to regard:

Ea honori habent, they regard these things as an honor. Sall. Illum pro hoste habers, to regard him as an enemy. Cass. Jam pro facto habers, to regard it as already done. Cic. In hostium numero habuit, he regarded them as enemies (lit., in the number of, etc.). Cass. Mē pro dērīdiculo putat, he regards me as an object of bidicule. Ter.

Note 2.—The Predicate Accusative is sometimes an adjective:

Homines caecos reddit avaritia, avarice renders men blind. Cic. Templa deorum sancta habebat, he regarded the temples of the gods as sacred. Nep.

2. In the Passive these verbs take two Nominatives—a Subject and a Predicate—corresponding to the two Accusatives of the Active:

Servius rēx est dēclārātus, Servius was declared KING. Liv. See also 362, 2.

¹ Observe that an *intransitive* verb may become *transitive* by being compounded with a preposition which does not take the Accusative.

RULE VII.-Two Accusatives-Person and Thing.

374. Some verbs of asking, demanding, teaching, and concealing, admit two Accusatives—one of the *person* and the other of the *thing*:

Mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion. Cic. Philosophia nos rēs omnēs docuit, philosophy has taught us all things. Cic. Auxilia rēgem orābant, they asked auxiliaries from the king. Liv. Pācem tē poscimus, we demand peace of you. Verg. Non tē cēlāvī sermonem, I did not conceal from you the conversation. Cic.

1. In the Passive the Person becomes the subject, and the Accusative or the thing is retained:

Mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion. Cic. Ego sententiam rogātus sum, I was asked my opinion. Cic. Artēs ēdōctus fuerat, he had been taught the arts. Liv.

2. Two Accusatives are generally used with $c\bar{c}l\bar{o}$, $doce\bar{o}$, $\bar{c}doce\bar{o}$; often with $rog\bar{o}$, $posc\bar{o}$, $reposc\bar{o}$; sometimes with $d\bar{c}doce\bar{o}$, $exposc\bar{o}$, $flagit\bar{o}$, $\bar{o}r\bar{o}$, etc., $c\bar{o}n$ - $sul\bar{o}$, $interrog\bar{o}$, percontor; rarely with $mone\bar{o}$, $admone\bar{o}$, and $postul\bar{o}$.

Note 1.— $C\bar{e}l\tilde{o}$, 'to conceal,' takes—(1) in the Active generally two Accusatives, as under the rule, but sometimes the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing with $d\tilde{e}$; (2) in the Passive, the Accusative of a neuter pronoun or the Ablative with $d\tilde{e}$:

Mē dē hōc librō cēlāvit, he kept me ignorant of this book. Cic. Id cēlārī, to be kept ignorant of this. Nep. Cēlārī dē cōnsiliō, to be kept ignorant of the plan. Cic.

NOTE 2.— $Doce\delta$ and $\bar{e}doce\delta$ generally follow the rule, but sometimes they take the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing with or without $d\bar{e}_i$ and sometimes the Accusative of the person with the Infinitive or a Subjunctive Clause:

Dē suā rē mō docet, he informs me in begard to his case. Cic. Lītterīs Graecīs dōctus, instructed in Greek literature. Sall. Sōcratem fidibus 3 docuit, he taught Socrates (with) the lyre. Cic. Tē sapere docet, he teaches you to be wise. Cic.

Note 3.—Most verbs of asking and demanding sometimes take two Accusatives, but verbs of asking, questioning, generally take the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing with $d\bar{\epsilon}$, and verbs of imploring, demanding, generally the Accusative of the thing and the Ablative of the person with \bar{a} or ab:

Të his dë rëbus interrogë, I ask you in regard to these things. Cic. Victoriam ab diës exposeere, to implore victory from the gods. Caes. Id ab eo flagitare, to demand this from him. Caes.

¹ Other verbs of teaching— $\bar{e}rudi\bar{o}$, $\bar{e}nstitu\bar{o}$, $\bar{e}nf\bar{o}rm\bar{o}$, $\bar{e}nstru\bar{o}$, etc.—generally take the Ablative of the thing with or without a preposition, as in or $d\bar{e}$; see Dictionary.

² Doceo, in the sense of inform, takes de with the Ablative.

³ The Accusative may be omitted. With fidibus supply canere.

⁴ The Accusative or Ablative of the person is often omitted, and a clause often takes the place of the Accusative or Ablative of the thing. For examples and for special constructions, see, in the Dictionary, consulo, interrogō, rogō; also flagitō, οτō, poscō, επροscō, and reposcō.

Note 4.—Petō and postulō generally take the Accusative of the thing 1 and the Ablative of the person with \bar{a} or ab; quaerō, the Accusative of the thing 1 and the Ablative of the person with \bar{e} or ex, \bar{a} , ab, or $d\bar{e}$:

Pacem ab Romanis petiërunt, they asked peace from the Romans. Caes. Aliquid ab amicis postulare, to demand something from friends. Cic. Quaerit ex sölö ea, etc.,

he asks of him in private (from him alone) those questions, etc. Caes.

375. A NEUTER PRONOUN or ADJECTIVE as a Cognate 2 Accusative occurs in connection with a Direct Object with many verbs which do not otherwise take two Accusatives:

Hốc tẽ hortor, I exhort you to this, I give you this exhortation. Cic. Ea³ monēmur, we are admonished of these things. Cic. So with velle, Caes., B. G. I., 34.

376. A few Compounds of trans, circum, and ad admit two Accusatives, dependent the one upon the verb, the other upon the preposition:

Ibèrum copias trajècit, he led his forces across the Ebro. Liv. Animum adverti columellam, I noticed (turned my mind to) a small column. Cic.

Note.—In the Passive these compounds and some others admit an Accusative depending upon the preposition:

Practervehor ostia Pantagiae, I am carried by the mouth of the Pantagias. Verg. Locum sum practervectus, I have been carried by the place. Cic.

377. In Poetry, rarely in prose, verbs of clothing, unclothing—induō, exuō, cingō, accingō, indūcō, etc.—are sometimes used reflexively in the Passive, like the Greek Middle, and thus admit an Accusative:

Galeam induitur, he puts on his helmet. Verg. Inutile ferrum cingitur, he girds on his useless sword. Verg. Virgines longam indutae vestem, maidens attired in long robes. Liv.

Note.—A few other verbs sometimes admit a similar construction in the poets :

Antiquum saturāta dolŏrem, having satisfied her old resentment. Verg. Suspēnsī loculēs lacertō, with satchels hung upon the arm (having hung, etc.). Hor. Pāscuntur silvās, they browse on the forests. Verg.

II. ACCUSATIVE IN AN ADVERBIAL SENSE.

RULE VIII.—Accusative of Specification.

378. A verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to define its application:

¹ The Ablative of the person is often omitted, and, instead of the Accusative of the thing, a clause is often used. With *postulo* and *quaero* the Ablative with $d\bar{e}$ occurs. For examples and for other special constructions, see Dictionary.

² See 371, II.

³ As a rare exception, *moneō* admits a *noun* as the Accusative of the thing; see Plaut., Stich., 1, 2, 1.

⁴ The Accusative of Specification is closely related to the *Cognate Accusative* and to the *Poetic Accusative* after Passive verbs used reflexively, both of which readily pass into an adverbial construction. Thus *capita* in *capita vēlāmur* and *galeam* in *galeam*

Capita vēlāmur, we have our heads veiled (are veiled as to our heads, or have veiled our heads). Verg. Nūbe humerōs amictus, with his shoulders enveloped in a cloud. Hor. Mīles frāctus membra labōre, the soldier with limbs shattered with labor (broken as to his limbs). Hor. Aenēās ōs deō similis, Aeneas like a god in appearance. Verg.

1. In a strict sense, the Accusative of Specification generally specifies the part to which the action or quality particularly belongs. In this sense, it is mostly poetic, but occurs also in prose. See Ablative of Specification, 424.

2. In a freer sense, this Accusative includes the adverbial use of partem, vicem, nihil, of id and genus in id temporis, id aetātis (at this time, age), id genus, 1 omne genus, quod genus (for ējūs generis, etc.), etc.; also of secus, rēs, and of many neuter pronouns and adjectives—hōc, illud, id, quid (454, 2), multum, summum, cētera, rēliqua, etc. In this sense, it is common in prose:

Maximam partem lacte vivunt, they live mostly (as to the largest part) upon milk. Caes. Locus id temporis vacuus erat, the place was at this time vacant. Cic. Aliquid id genus i scribere, to write something of this kind. Cic. Alias res est improbus, in other things (as to the rest) he is unprincipled. Plaut. Quaerit, quid possint, he inquires how powerful they are. Caes. Quid vēnīstī, why have you come? Plaut.

RULE IX.-Accusative of Time and Space.

379. DURATION OF TIME and EXTENT OF SPACE are expressed by the Accusative:

Rōmulus septem et trīgintā rēgnāvit annōs, Romulus reigned thirty-seven Years. Liv. Cyrus quadrāgintā annōs nātus rēgnāre coepit, Cyrus began to reign (when) forty Years old (having been born forty Years). Cic. Quīnque mīlia passuum ambulāre, to walk five MILES. Cic. Pedēs octōgintā dīstāre, to be eighty feet distant. Caes. Nix quattuor pedēs alta, snow four feet deep. Liv. But—

1. DURATION OF TIME is sometimes expressed by the Ablative, or by the Accusative with a preposition:

Pügnätum est höris quinque, the battle was fought five hours. Caes. Per annös viginti certätum est, the war was waged for twenty years. Liv.

2. DISTANCE is sometimes expressed by the Ablative:

Milibus passuum sex ā Caesaris castrīs consēdit, he encamped at the distance of six miles from Caesar's camp. Caes.

Note.—Ab used adverbially, meaning off, sometimes accompanies the Ablative:

Ab mīlibus passuum duōbus castra posuērunt, they pitched their camp two miles off. Caes.

induitur are similar constructions, while quid in quaerit quid possint may be explained either as a Cognate Accusative (371, I., 2) or as an Adverbial Accusative.

¹ Some grammarians treat genus in all such cases as an Appositive: aliquid, id genus, something, this kind; see Draeger, I., p. 2.

RULE X .- Accusative of Limit.

380. The PLACE TO WHICH is designated by the Accusative:

I. Generally with a preposition—ad or in:

Legiones ad urbem adducit, he is leading the legions to or toward the city. Cic. Ad mē scrībunt, they are writing to me. Cic. In Asiam redit, he returns into Asia. Nep. Confugit in āram, he fled to the altar. Nep.

II. In names of towns without a preposition:

Nuntius Romam redit, the messenger returns to Rome. Liv. Plato Tarentum vēnit, Plato came to Tarentum. Cic. Fugit Tarquinios, he fled to Tarquinii. Cic. But—

Note.—Verbs meaning to collect, to come together, etc.—conventō, cōgō, convocō, etc.—are usually treated as verbs of motion, and thus take the Accusative, generally with a preposition; but verbs meaning to place—locō, collocō, pōnō, etc.—are usually treated as verbs of rest, and thus take the Ablative (425), generally with a preposition:

Unum in locum convenire, to meet in one Place. Caes. Cōpiās in unum locum cogere, to collect forces in one Place. Caes. In alterius manu vitam ponere, to place one's life in the hand of another. Cic.

1. In the NAMES OF TOWNS the Accusative with ad occurs—(1) to denote to, toward, in the direction of, into the vicinity of, and (2) in contrast with a or ab:

Trēs sunt viae ad Mutinam, there are three roads to Mutina. Cic. Ad Zamam pervēnit, he came to the vicinity of Zama. Sall. Ā Diāniō ad Sinōpēn, from Dianium to Sinope. Cic.

- 2. Like names of towns are used-
- 1) The Accusatives domum, domōs, rūs:

Scīpiō domum reductus est, Scipio was conducted home. Cic. Domōs abductī, led to their homes. Liv. Rūs ēvolāre, to hasten into the country. Cic. Domum reditiō, a return home. Caes.

2) Sometimes the Accusative of names of islands and peninsulas:

Latons confugit Delum, Latons fled to Delos. Cic. Pervenit Chersonesum, he went to the Chersonesus. Nep.

- 3) Rarely a few other Accusatives, as exsequiās, īnfitiās, etc.:2
- Ille infitias ibit, he will deny (will proceed to a DENIAL). Ter.
- 3. The preposition is sometimes omitted before names of countries, and, in the poets, before names of nations and even before common nouns:

Originally the place to which was uniformly designated by the Accusative without a preposition. Names of towns have retained the original construction, while most other names of places have assumed a preposition.

² See also the Supine in um, 546,

Aegyptum profugit, he fled to Egypt. Cic. İtaliam vēnit, he came to Italy. Verg. İbimus Āfrōs, we shall go to the Africans. Verg. Lāvīnia vēnit lītora, he came to the Lavinian shores. Verg.

4. A POETICAL DATIVE occurs for the Accusative, with or without a preposition:

It clamor caelo (for ad caelum), the shout ascends to heaven. Verg. Facilis descensus Averno, easy is the descent to Hades. Verg. See 385, 4.

III. ACCUSATIVE IN EXCLAMATIONS.

RULE XI.-Accusative in Exclamations.

381. The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in exclamations:

Heu mē miserum, ah me unhappy! Cic. Mē miserum, me miserable! ¹ Cic. Ō fallācem spem, O deceptive hope! Cic. Mē caecum, blind that I am! Cic. Prō deōrum fidem, in the name of the gods! Cic. Hanccine audāciam, this audacity? ² Cic. But—

Note 1.—An adjective or Genitive generally accompanies this Accusative, as in the examples.

Note $2.-\bar{O}$, theu, and heu are the interjections most frequently used with the Accusative, though others occur.

Note 3.—Other cases also occur in exclamations:

1) The Vocative-when an address as well as an exclamation is intended:

Pro sancte Juppiter, O holy Jupiter. Cic. Infelix Dido, unhappy Dido. Verg.

2) The Nominative-when the exclamation approaches the form of a statement:

 $\bar{E}n$ dextra, lo the right hand)! Verg. Ecce tuse litteras, lo your letter (comes)! Cic.

3) The Dative—to designate the person after ei, vae, and sometimes after ecce, ên, hem: 3

Ei mihž, woe to me. Verg. Vae tibž, woe to you. Ter. Ecce tibž, lo to you (lo here is to you = observe). Cic. \vec{En} tibž, this for you (lo I do this for you). Liv.

SECTION V.

DATIVE.

382. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object, and designates the Person to or for whom, or the Thing to or for which, anything is or is done.

¹ See Milton, 'Paradise Lost,' IV., 73.

² The exclamation may of course be interrogative in character.

³ This is an Ethical Dative; see 389.

⁴ The *Indirect Object* is generally a *person*, or *something personified*. Unlike the Direct Object, it is never contained in the action or produced by it, but is in most instances the *interested recipient* of it.

⁵ Whether this was the original meaning of the Dative is not known. Delbrück

383. The Dative is used—

- I. With a large class of Verbs and Adjectives;
- II. With a few special Nouns and Adverbs.

RULE XII.-Dative with Verbs.

384. The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It is used—

I. With Intransitive and Passive Verbs:

Tidī serviō, I am devoted to you. Plaut. Serviunt populō, they are devoted to the people. Cic. Imperiō pārēbant, they were obedient to (obeyed) authority. Caes. Temporī cēdit, he yields to the time. Cic. Labōrī student, they devote themselves to labor. Caes. Mundus deō pāret, the world obeys God.¹ Cic. Caesarī supplicābō, I will supplicate Caesar.¹ Cic. Nōbīs vīta data est, life has been granted to us. Cic. Numitōrī dēditur, he is delivered to Numitor. Liv.

II. With TRANSITIVE Verbs, in connection with the DIRECT OBJECT:

Agrōs plēbī dedit, he gave lands to the common people. Cic. Tibī grātiās agō, I give thanks to you. Cic. Nātūra hominem conciliat hominī, Nature reconciles man to man. Cic. Pōns iter hostibus dedit, the bridge gave a passage to the enemy. Liv. Lēgēs cīvitātibus suīs scrīpsērunt, they prepared laws for their states. Cic.

- 1. The Indirect Object may be-
- 1) The Dative of Influence, 2 designating the person to whom something is or is done:

Serviunt populo, they are devoted to the people. Cic. Agros plebi dedit, he gave lands to the common people. Cic.

2) The Dative of Interest, 2 designating the *person* for whom something is or is done:

Sibi Megarënsës vicit, he conquered the Megarians for himself. Just.

3) The Dative of Purpose or End, 2 designating the object or end for which something is or is done:

Receptur cecinit, he gave the signal for a retreat. Liv.

thinks that this case originally designated the place or object toward which the action tended. See Kuhn's 'Zeitschrift,' vol. xviii., p. 81.

¹ Is subject to God; will make supplication to Caesar.

² Observe that the Dative of Influence is very closely connected with the verb, and is, in fact, essential to the completeness of the sentence; while the Dative of Interest and the Dative of Purpose are merely added to sentences which would be complete without them. Thus Megarënsës vicit is complete in itself.

2. DOUBLE CONSTRUCTION.—A few verbs admit—(1) the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (2) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing: alicui rem dōnāre, 'to present a thing to any one,' or aliquem rē dōnāre, 'to present any one with a thing': 1

Praedam mīlitibus donat, he gives the booty to the soldiers. Caes. Atheniënses frumento donavit, he presented the Athenians with grain. Nep.

Note.—This construction may also be used of objects which are in a measure personified, or which involve persons:

Murum urbi circumdedit, he built a wall around the city. Nep. Deus animum circumdedit corpore, God has encompassed the soul with a body. Cic.

- 3. To and for are not always signs of the Dative. Thus-
- 1) To, denoting mere motion or direction, is generally expressed by the Accusative with or without a preposition (380):

Vēnī ad urbem, I came to the city. Cic. $D\bar{e}lum$ vēnimus, we came to Delos. Cic.

Note 1 .- But the Dative occurs in the poets; see 380, 4, and 385, 4.

NOTE 2.— $Mitt\bar{\nu}$, 'to send,' and $scr\bar{\nu}b\bar{\nu}$, 'to write,' take the Dative, or the Accusative with ad, to denote the person to whom:

Scrībit Labiēnō, he writes to Labienus. Caes. Scrībēs ad mē, you will write to me. Cic.

2) For, in defence of, in behalf of, is expressed by the Ablative with $pr\bar{o}$; for the sake of, for the purpose of, sometimes by the Accusative with in:

Prō patriā morī, to die for one's country. Hor. Dīmicāre prō lībertāte, to fight for liberty. Cic. Satis in ūsum, enough for use. Liv.

4. The Dative sometimes depends, not upon the verb alone, but upon the Predicate as a whole:

Tegimenta galeis 2 milites facere jubet, he orders the soldiers to make coverings for their helmets. Caes. Liberis divites esse volumus, we wish to be rich for the sake of our children. Cic. Quis huic ret testis est, who testifies to this (lit., is a witness for this thing). Cic.

NOTE 1.—The Dative is used with verbs modified by satis, bene, and male, whether written as compounds or not:

Illis satis facere (also written satisfacere), to satisfy them. Caes. Cui bene dixit unquam, for whom has he ever spoken a good word? Cic. Optimō virō maledicere, to revile a most excellent man. Cic.

Note 2.—A Dative is sometimes thus added to the predicate when the English idiom would lead us to expect a Genitive depending upon a noun:

In conspectum venerat hostibus, 4 he had come in sight of the enemy (lit., to the

¹ This double construction occurs chiefly with aspergō, circumdō, circumfundō, dōnō, exuō, impertiō, induō, inspergō, interclūdō.

² Galeīs is best explained as depending upon tegimenta facere, rather than upon facere alone; liberīs, as depending upon dīvitēs esse volumus, and rēī upon testis est.

³ Literally, to do enough for them.

⁴ Hostibus does not depend at all upon conspectum, but upon the entire predicate, in conspectum venerat.

ENEMY). Cic. Caesarl ad pedes proiecre, to cast at the feet of Caesar (lit., to Caesar, at the feet). Caes. Mihi horror membra quatit, a shudder shakes my limbs. Verg. Urbī fundāmenta jacere, to lay the foundations of (for) the city. Liv.

Note 8.—The Dative is sometimes very loosely connected with the predicate, merely

designating the person with reference to whom the statement is true:

Tù illi pater es, you are a father to him. Tac. Triduī iter expedītīs erat, it was a journey of three days for light-armed soldiers. Liv. Est urbe ēgrēssīs tumulus, there is a mound as you go out of the city.\(^1\) Verg.

5. WITH IMPERSONAL PASSIVE.—Verbs which admit only an *Indirect Object* in the Active are *Impersonal* in the Passive, but they may retain the Dative:

Hostibus resistunt, they resist the enemy. Caes. Hīs sententiīs resistitur, resistance is offered to these opinions. Caes. Nē mihī noceant, that they may not injure ME. Cic. Mihī nihil nocērī potest, no injury can be done to ME (lit., injury can be done to ME not at all). Cic.

385. WITH SPECIAL VERBS.—The Dative of the Indirect Object is used with many verbs which require special mention. Thus—

I. With verbs signifying to benefit or injure, please or displease, command or obey, serve or resist, and the like:

Sibi prosunt, they benefit themselves. Cic. Nocère alteri, to injure another. Cic. Zenoni placuit, it pleased Zeno. Cic. Displicet Tullo, it displeases Tullus. Liv. Cupiditatibus imperare, to command desires. Cic. Deo parère, to obey God. Cic. Regi servire, to serve the king. Cic. Hostibus resistere, to resist the enemy. Caes.

II. With verbs signifying to indulge, spare, pardon, threaten, believe, persuade, and the like:

Sibi indulgēre, to indulge one's self. Cic. Vitae parcere, to spare life. Nep. Mihī īgnōscere, to pardon me. Cic. Minitāns patriae, threatening his country. Liv. Īrāscī amīcīs, to be angry with friends. Cic. Mihī crēde, believe me. Cic. IIs persuādēre, to persuade them. Caes.

Note 1.—Some verbs of this class take the Accusative: $d\bar{\epsilon}lect\bar{o},\,juv\bar{o},\,laed\bar{o},\,offend\bar{o},$ etc.:

Marium jūvit, he helped Marius. Nep. Non me fama delectat, fame does not delight me. Cic.

Note 2.—For fido and confido with the Ablative, see 425, 1, 1), note.

Note 3 .- The force of the Dative is often found only by attending to the strict mean-

¹ Other examples are: Ā Pylīs euntī locō altō sitī sunt, they are situated in an elevated place as you come (lit., to one coming) from Pylas. Liv. Dēscendentibus inter duōs lūcōs, as you descend (lit., to those descending) between the two groves. Liv. Exscendentibus ad templum mācerla erat, there was an enclosure as you ascended to the temple. Liv. In ūniversum aestimantī plūs penes peditem rōboris est, to make a general estimate (lit., to one making, etc.), there is more strength in the infantry. Tac.

ing of the verb: $n\bar{u}b\bar{v}$, 'to marry' (strictly, to veil one's self, as the bride for the bride-groom); medeor, 'to cure' (to administer a remedy to); satisfaci \bar{v} , 'to satisfy' (to do enough for), etc.

1. Some verbs admit either the Accusative or the Dative, but with a difference of meaning:

Cavere aliquem, to ward off some one; cavere alicui, to care for some one.

Consulere aliquem, to consult, etc.; alicui, to consult for, etc.

Metuere, timere aliquem, to fear; alicui, to fear FOR.

Prospicere, providere aliquid, to foresee; alicui, to provide For.

Temperare, moderari aliquid, to govern, direct; alicui (of things), to restrain, put a check upon; temperare alicui (of persons), to spare: 1

Hunc tū cavētō, be on your guard against this one (līt., ward him off). Hor. Ēt cavēre volō, I wish to care for him (i. e., to protect him). Cic. Perfidiam timēmus, we fear perfidy. Cic. Sibī timuerant, they had feared for themselves. Caes.

Note.—Dare litter as ad aliquem means to address a letter to some one; but dare litter as alieui generally means to deliver a letter to one as a carrier of messenger:

Litterae $mih\bar{i}$ ad Catilinam datae sunt, a letter addressed to Catiline was delivered to me. Cic.

2. A DATIVE rendered from occurs with a few verbs of differing, dissenting, repelling, taking away, etc.:

Differre cuivis, to differ from any one. Nep. Sibi dissentire, to dissent from himself. Cic. Somnum mihi adimere, to take sleep from me. Cic.

Note.—For the *Poetical Dative*, see 4, below; and for the *Ablative* with verbs of Separation or Difference, see 413.

3. A Dative rendered with occurs with misceo, admisceo, etc., and sometimes with facio:

Sevēritātem miscēre comitatī, to unite severity with affability. Liv. Quid huic hominī faciās, what are you to do with (to) this man? Cic. See 4 below.

- 4. Dative in Poetry.—In the poets and in late prose-writers, the Dative is used much more freely than in classical prose. Thus it occurs with more or less frequency with the following classes of verbs:
- 1) With verbs denoting Motion or Direction—for the Accusative with ad or in:
- Multos demittimus Orco (for ad or in Orcum), we send many down to Orcus. Verg. Caelo (for ad caelum) palmäs tetendit, he extended his hands toward heaven. Verg. It clamor caelo, the shout goes to heaven. Verg. See also 392, I.
- 2) With verbs denoting Separation or Difference 2—instead of the Ablative with ab or de, or the Accusative with inter:

Sölstitium pecorë (for à pecore) défendite, keep off the heat from the flock. Verg. Scurrae distabit amicus, a friend will differ from a jester. Hor. Serta capiti délâpsa, garlands fallen from his head. Verg.

Many other verbs take different constructions with different meanings; see cēdō, conveniō, cupiō, dēficiō, doleō, maneō, parcō, petō, solvō, and volō in the Dictionary.
Thus with arceō, absum, differō, dissentiō, dissideō, dīstō, etc.; see Dictionary.

3) With verbs denoting *Union*, *Comparison*, *Contention*, and the like instead of the Ablative with *cum*, or the Accusative with *inter*:

Miscet ² virīs, he mingles with the men. Verg. Concurrere hostī (for cum hoste), to meet the enemy. Ov. Sõlus tibī certat, he alone contends with you. Verg. Placitõne pūgnābis amorī, will you contend with acceptable love? Verg.

4) In still other instances, especially in expressions of Place:

Haeret lateri (for in latere) arundo, the arrow sticks in her side. Verg. Ārdet apex capiti, the helmet gleams upon his head. Verg.

386. Dative with Compounds.—The Dative is used with many verbs compounded with—

ad, ante, con, dē, in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super:

Adsum amīcīs, I am present with MY friends. Cic. Omnibus antestāre, to surpass all. Cic. Terrīs cohaeret, it eleaves to the earth. Sen. Hŏc Caesarī dēfuit, this failed (was wanting to) Caesar. Caes. Voluptātī inhaerēre, to be connected with pleasure. Cic. Interfuit pūgnae, he participated in the battle. Nep. Cōnsiliīs obstāre, to oppose plans. Nep. Lībertātī opēs postferre, to sacrifice wealth to liberty. Liv. Populō praesunt, they rule the people. Cic. Tībī prōsunt, they are profitable to you. Cic. Succumbere dolōribus, to yield to sorrows. Cic. Superfuit patrī, he survived his father. Liv.

1. Transitive Verbs thus compounded admit both the Accusative and the Dative:

Së opposuit hostibus, he opposed himself to the enemy. Cic. Capiti subduxerat ensem, she had removed my sword from my head. Verg. See also Libertüti opës postferre, above.

2. Compounds of other Prepositions, especially of ab, ex, and circum, sometimes admit the Dative; while several of the compounds specified under the rule admit the Ablative with or without a preposition:

Sibi libertatem abjūdicat, he deprives Himself (sentences himself to the loss) of liberty. Cic. Mihi timorem eripe, free me from fear (lit., enatch away fear for me). Cic. Pūgnā assuescere, to be accustomed to (trained in) battle. Liv. Dicta cum factīs componere, to compare words with deeds. Sall.

3. Motion or Direction.—Compounds expressing mere motion or direction generally take the Accusative with or without a preposition:

 $^{^1}$ Thus, with cōpulō, jungō, misceō, admisceō, permisceō, nectō, sociō, etc.; certō, contendō, luctor, pūgnō, etc.

² Misceo, as a transitive verb, occurs with the Accusative and Dative even in classical prose; see 385, 8; also 371, III., note 2.

³ See assuēscē, assuēfaciē, acquiēscē, coeē, cohaereē, collūdē, commūnicē, compēnē, concordē, cōnferē, cōnflīgē, congruē, conjungē, cōnsentiē, cōnstē, īnsideē, īnsum, and interdīcē, in the Dictionary. See also Draeger, I., pp. 406-426

⁴ See accēdo, accido, addo, adfero, adhaerēsco, adhibeo, adjungo, adnītor, adscribo, adsum, illūdo, incido, incumbo, incurro, infero, offero, oppono, in the Dictionary.

Adire ārās, to approach the altars. Cic. Ad consules adire, to go to the consuls. Cic. In bellum insistit, he devotes himself to the war. Caes. Ad omne periculum opponitur, he is exposed to every peril. Cic.

4. Several compounds admit either the Accusative or the Dative without any special difference of meaning:

Münītiönibus adjacent, they are near the fortifications. Tac. Mare illud adjacent, they are near that sea. Nep. Quibus timor incesserat, whom fear had seized. Sall. Timor patres incessit, fear seized the fathers. Liv.

5. Many compounds which usually take the Accusative or the Ablative with a preposition in classical prose, admit a Dative in poetry:

Quid contendat hirundŏ cycnīs (for cum cycnīs), why should the swallow contend with swans? Lucr. Contendis Homērō, you contend with Homee. Prop. Animīs illābī nostrīs (for in animōs nostrōs), to sink into our minds. Verg.

Note.—Instead of the compounds of ad, ante, etc., the poets sometimes use in the same sense the simple verbs 2 with the Dative:

Qui haeserat (= adhaeserat) Ēvandrō, who had joined himself to Evander. Verg. Pōnis (= appōnis) mihī porcum, you offer me (place before me) swine's flesh. Martial.

387. The DATIVE OF THE Possessor is used with the verb sum:

Mihā est noverca, I have (there is to me) a stepmother. Verg. Fonta nomen Arethusa est, the fountain has (there is to the fountain) the name Arethusa. Cic. But—

Note 1.—The Dative of the Name as well as of the possessor is common in expressions of naming: nomen est, nomen datur, etc.:

Scīpiōnī Āfricānō cōgnōmen fuit, Scipio had the surname Africanus. Sall. Here Africānō, instead of being in apposition with cōgnōmen, is put by attraction in apposition with Scīpiōnī.

Note 2 .- The Genitive of the Name dependent upon nomen occurs :

Nomen Mercuri est mihi, I have the name of MERCURY. Plaut.

NOTE 3.—By a Greek Idiom, volēns, cupiēns, or invītus sometimes accompanies the Dative of the possessor:

Quibus bellum volentibus erat, who liked the war (lit., to whom wishing the war was). Tac.

388. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is used with the Gerundive, and with the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation:

¹ Such are adjaceo, adūlor, antecēdo, anteeo, conītor, dēspēro (also with dē), illūdo, incēdo, īnsulto, invādo, praecurro, praesto, praestolor.

² Thus fero for adfero, profero; haereo for adhaereo; pono for appono, depono, impono, etc.

³ The Dative with est usually expresses simple possession or ownership, like the English have. Habeo is sometimes used in the same sense, but it more commonly expresses some of the shades of meaning denoted by hold, keep, regard, and the like: arcem habere, 'to hold the citadel'; aliquem in obsidione habere, 'to hold or keep one in siege'; pro hoste habere, 'to regard as an enemy.'

Proclia conjugibus loquenda, battles for women to talk about. Hor. Suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, every one has his own trouble to bear, or must bear his own trouble. Cic.

Note.—Instead of the Dative of the Apparent Agent, the Ablative with \bar{a} or ab is sometimes used:

Quibus est ā vobīs 2 consulendum, for whom measures must be taken by you. Cic.

1. The Dative of the Apparent Agent is sometimes used with the compound tenses of passive verbs:

Mihž consilium captum jam diū est, I have a plan long since formed.1 Cic.

Note.—Habeō with the Perfect Participle has the same force as est mint with the Participle:

Bellum habuit indictum, he had a war (already) declared. Cic.

2. The Real Agent, with Passive verbs, is in classical prose denoted by the Ablative with \bar{a} or ab; see 415, I.

3. The DATIVE is used with the tenses for incomplete action, to designate the person who is at once Agent and Indirect Object, the person by whom and FOR (TO) whom the action is performed:

Honesta bonīs virīs quaeruntur, honorable things are sought by good men

(i. e., for themselves). Cic.

4. In the Poets, the Dative is often used for the Ablative with \bar{a} or ab, to designate simply the agent of the action:

Non intellegor $\bar{u}ll\bar{i},\bar{I}$ am not understood by any one. Ovid. Rėgnāta arva Saturnō, lands ruled by Saturn. Verg.

389. The ETHICAL DATIVE, denoting the person to whom the thought is of special interest, is often introduced into the Latin sentence:

At tibi venit ad mē, but lo, he comes to me. Cic. Ad illa mihi intendat animum, let him, I pray, direct his attention to those things. Liv. Quō mihi abīs, whither are you going, pray? Verg. Quid mihi Celsus agit, what is my Celsus doing? Hor.

¹ The Dative with the Gerundive, whether alone or in the Periphrastic Conjugation, designates the person who has the work to do; while with the compound tenses of passive verbs it designates the person who has the work already done.

² Here \bar{a} $v\bar{o}b\bar{v}s$ is necessary, to distinguish the Agent from the Indirect Object, quibus; but the Ablative with \bar{a} or ab is sometimes used when this necessity does not exist.

³ The Dative with the Gerundive is best explained as the Dative of Possessor or of Indirect Object. Thus, suum cuique incommodum est means 'every one has his trouble' (cuique, Dative of Possessor); and suum cuique incommodum ferendum est, 'every one has his trouble to bear.' So too, mihī consilium est, 'I have a plan'; mihī consilium captum est, 'I have a plan (already) formed.'

⁴ Compare the following from Shakespeare: 'He plucked me ope his doublet and offered them his throat to cut,' Julius Caesar, Act I., Scene II. 'It ascends me into the brain.' Henry IV., Part II., Act IV., Scene III. 'He presently steps me a little higher.' Henry IV., Part I., Act IV., Scene III.

NOTE 1 .- The ETHICAL DATIVE is always a personal pronoun.

NOTE 2.—The ETHICAL DATIVE occurs with VOLO and with INTERJECTIONS:

Quid võdīs vultis, what do you wish, intend, mean? Liv. Avāritia quid sidǐ vult, what does avarice mean? or what object can it have? Cic. Ei mihǐ, ah me! Verg. Vae tidǐ, woe to you. Ter. See 381, note 3, 3).

RULE XIII.-Two Datives-To which and For which.

390. Two Datives—the object to which and the object of end for which—occur with a few verbs:

I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:

Malŏ est hominibus avāritia, avarice is an evil to men (lit., is to men for an evil). Cic. Est mihš cūrae, it is a care to me. Cic. Domus dēdecorī dominō fit, the house becomes a disgrace to its owner. Cic. Vēnit Atticīs auxiliō, he came to the assistance of the Athenians. Nep. Hŏc illī tribuēbātur īgnāviae, this was imputed to him as cowardice (for cowardice). Cic. Eīs subsidiō missus est, he was sent to them as aid. Nep.

II. With TRANSITIVE verbs in connection with the ACCUSATIVE:

Quinque cohortes castris praesidio reliquit, he left five cohorts for the defence of the camp (lit., to the camp for a defence). Caes. Pericles agros suos dono rei publicae dedit, Pericles gave his lands to the republic as a present (lit., for a present). Just.

Note 1 .- The verbs which take two Datives are-

1) Intransitive verbs signifying to be, become, go, and the like: sum, $f\bar{\imath}\bar{o}$, etc.

2) Transitive verbs signifying to give, send, leave, impute, regard, choose, and the like: \$\darkline{a}\$, \$\darkline{a}\$\tilde{c}\$, habed, mitto, relinquo, tribuo, verto, etc. These take in the Active two Datives with an Accusative; but in the Passive two Datives only, as the direct object of the Active becomes the subject of the Passive; see 464.

Note 2.—One of the Datives is often omitted, or its place supplied by a predicate noun:

Ea sunt ūsuī, these things are of use (for use). Caes. Tū illī pater es, you are
A FATHER TO HIM. Tac. See 362, 2, note 3.

Note 3.—With audiëns two Datives sometimes occur, dictō dependent upon audiëns, and a personal Dative dependent upon dictō audiëns, and sometimes dictō oboediëns is used like dictō audiëns:

Dictō sum audiëns, I am listening to the word. Plaut. Nöbīs dictō audiëns est, he is obedient to us. Clc. Magistrō dictō obcediëns, obedient to his master. Plaut.

RULE XIV.—Dative with Adjectives.

391. With adjectives the OBJECT TO WHICH the quality is directed is put in the Dative:

Patriae solum omnibus cārum est, the soil of their country is dear to all. Cic. Id aptum est temporī, this is adapted to the time. Cic. Omnī aetātī mors est commūnis, death is common to every age. Cic. Canis similis lupō

est, a dog is similar to a wolf. Cic. Nātūrae accommodātum, adapted to nature. Cic. Graeciae ūtile, useful to Greece. Nep.

I. ADJECTIVES which take the DATIVE are chiefly those signifying-

Agreeable, easy, friendly, like, near, necessary, suitable, subject, useful, together with others of a similar or opposite meaning, and verbals in bilis.

II. OTHER CONSTRUCTIONS sometimes occur where the learner would expect the Dative:

1. The Accusative with a Preposition: (1) in, ergā, adversus, with adjectives signifying friendly, hostile, etc., and (2) ad, to denote the object or end for which, with adjectives signifying useful, suitable, inclined, etc.:

Perindulgēns in patrem, very kind to his father. Cic. Multās ad rēs perūtilis, very useful for many things. Cic. Pronus ad lūctum, inclined to

mourning. Cic.

2. The Accusative without a Preposition with propior, proximus:

Propior montem, nearer the mountain. Sall. Proximus mare, nearest to the sea. Caes. See 433 and 437.

3. The Ablative with or without a Preposition:

Aliënum ā vītā meā, foreign to my Life. Ter. Homine aliënissimum, most foreign to or from Man. Cic. Ēī cum Rōsciō commūnis, common to him and Roscius (with Roscius). Cic.

4. The Genitive: (1) with adjectives used substantively; (2) with adjectives meaning like, 2 unlike, 2 near, belonging to, and a few others: 3

Amicissimus hominum, the best friend of the Men (i. e., the most friendly to them). Cic. Alexandrī similis, like Alexander (i. e., in character). Cic. Dispar suī, unlike itself. Cic. Cūjus parēs, like whom. Cic. Populī Rōmānī est propria lībertās, liberty is characteristic of the Roman people. Cic.

Note 1.—Idem occurs with the Dative, especially in the poets:

Idem facit occidenti, he does the same as to kill, or as he who kills. Hor. Note 2.—For the Genitive and Dative with an adjective, see 399, I., note 1.

RULE XV.-Dative with Nouns and Adverbs.

392. The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs:

I. With a few nouns from verbs which take the Dative:

Jūstitia est obtemperatio 4 legibus, justice is obedience to laws. Cic.

¹ Such are accommodātus, aequātis, aličnus, amīcus, inimīcus, aptus, cārus, facitis, difficilis, fidēlis, infidēlis, finitimus, grātus, ingrātus, idöneus, jūcundus, injūcundus, molestus, necessārius, notus, īgūtus, novius, pār, dispar, perniciūsus, propinguus, proprius, salūtāris, similis, dissimilis, diversus, vīcīnus, etc.

² The Genitive is used especially of likeness and unlikeness in Character.

³ As similis, dissimilis, assimilis, consimilis, par, dispar; adfinis, finitimus, propinguus; proprius, sacer, communis; aliënus, contrarius, insuëtus, etc.

⁴ From obtempero, which takes the Dative.

Sibi responsio, a reply to himself. Cic. Opulento homini servitus dura est, serving (servitude to) a rich man is hard. Plaut. Facilis descensus 1 Averno, easy is the descent to Avernus. Verg.

II. With a few adverbs from adjectives which take the Dative:

Congruenter ⁹ nātūrae vīvere, to live in accordance with nature. Cic. Sibš convenienter dīcere, to speak consistently with himself. Cic. Prōximē hostium castrīs, next to the camp of the enemy. Caes.

NOTE 1.—In rare instances the Dative occurs with a few nouns and adverbs not included in the rule:

Tribunicia potestas, munimentum libertāti, tribunician power, a defence for liberty. Liv. Huic unā = unā cum hōc, with this one. Verg.

NOTE 2.—For the Dative of *Gerundives* with official names, see **544**, note 3. NOTE 8.—For the Dative with *interjections*, see **381**, note 8; **389**, note 2.

SECTION VI.

GENITIVE.

393. The Genitive in its ordinary use corresponds to the English possessive, or the objective with of, and expresses various adjective relations.

Note.—But the Genitive, especially when objective (396, III.), is sometimes best rendered to, for, from, in, on account of, etc.:

Beneficit gratis, gratifude for a favor. Cic. Laborum fuga, escape from labors. Cic. Ereptae virginis ira, anger on account of the rescue of the maiden. Verg.

394. The Genitive is used chiefly to qualify or limit nouns and adjectives, though it also occurs with verbs and adverbs.

RULE XVI.-Genitive with Nouns.

395. Any noun, not an appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive:

Catōnis ōrātiōnēs, Cato's orations. Cic. Castra hostium, the camp of the enemy. Liv. Mors Hamilcaris, the death of Hamilcar. Liv. Deūm metus, the fear of the gods. Liv. Vir cōnsiliī māgnī, a man of great prudence. Caes. Pars populī, a part of the people. Cic.

² From congruens, which takes the Dative.

¹ From descendo, which admits the Dative in poetry; see 385, 4, 1).

The Genitive has nearly the force of an adjective, and means simply of or belonging to. Thus, rēgis, equivalent to rēģisus, means of or belonging to a king. On the origin and use of the Genitive, see Hūbschmann, p. 106; Merguet, p. 69; Holzweissig, pp. 26 and 73; Draeger, I., pp. 447-498; Roby, II., pp. 116-137.
4 Doubtless originally it limited only nouns and adjectives.

NOTE 1 .- For the Appositive, see 363.

Note 2.—An Adjective is sometimes used for the Genitive:

Bellica glōria = bellī glōria, the glory of war. Cic. Conjunx Hectorea = conjunx Hectoris, the wife of Hector. Verg. Pūgna Marathōnia, the battle of Marathon. Cic. Dīāna Ephesia, Diana of Ephesus. Cic. See 393, foot-note.

Note 3 .- For the Predicate Genitive, see 401.

Note 4.—For special uses of the Dative, see 384, 4, note 2.

396. The qualifying Genitive may be—

I. A Possessive Genitive, 1 designating the author and the possessor:

Xenophontis librī, the books of Xenophon. Cic. Fānum Neptūnī, the temple of Neptune. Nep.

II. A Subjective Genitive, designating the subject or agent of the action, feeling, etc.:

Serpentis morsus, the bite of the serpent. Cic. Pavor Numidarum, the fear of the Numidians. Liv.

Note.—The Possessive Pronoun is regularly used for the Subjective Genitive of Personal pronouns:

Mea domus, my house. Cic. Fama tua, your fame. Cic.

III. An Objective Genitive, designating the *object* toward which the action or feeling is directed:

Amor gloriae, the love of glory. Cic. Memoria malorum, the recollection of sufferings. Cic. Deum metus, the fear of the gods. Liv.

Note 1.—For the Objective Genitive, the Accusative with in, $\bar{e}rg\bar{a}$, or adversus is sometimes used:

Odium in hominum genus, hatred of or toward the race of men. Cic. Ergā vos amor, love toward you. Cic.

NOTE 2.—The Possessive occurs, though rarely, for the Objective Genitive of Personal pronouns:

Tua fīdūcia, reliance on you. Cic.

IV. A Partitive Genitive, designating the whole of which a part is taken:

Quis vestrum, which of you? Cic. Vitae pars, a part of life. Cic. Omnium sapientissimus, the wisest of all men. Cic.

V. A DESCRIPTIVE GENITIVE, also called a GENITIVE OF CHARACTERISTIC, designating character or quality, including value, price, size, weight, age, etc.

Vir māximī consiliī, a man of very great prudence. Nep. Mītis ingeniī juvenis, a youth of mild disposition. Liv. Vēstis māgnī pretīī, a garment of great value. Cic. Exsilium decem annorum, an exile of ten years. Nep. Corona parvī ponderis, a crown of small weight. Liv. See 404.

¹ It will be found convenient thus to characterize the different uses of the Genitive by the relation actually existing between the words united by it, though that special relation is not expressed by the case itself, but merely suggested by the meaning of the words thus united.

Note 1.—The Descriptive Genitive must be accompanied by an adjective or some other modifier, unless it be a compound containing a modifier; as $h\bar{u}jusmod\bar{u}=h\bar{u}jusmod\bar{u}$; $tr\bar{t}du\bar{u}$, from $tr\bar{t}s$ $di\bar{t}s$; $bidu\bar{t}$, from duo (bis) $di\bar{t}s$.

Note 2.—For id genus = ējus generis, omne genus = omnis generis, see 378, 2.

NOTE 3 .- For the Descriptive Ablative, see 419, II., with note.

VI. An Appositional Genitive, having the general force of an Appositive (363):

Virtus continentiae, the virtue of self-control. Cic. Oppidum Antiochiae, the city of Antioch. Cic. Tellus Ausoniae, the land of Ausonia. Verg.

- 397. The Partitive Generic designates the whole of which a part is taken. It is used—
- 1. With pars, nēmē, nihil; with nouns of quantity, number, weight, etc., as modius, legiē, talentum; and with any nouns used partitively:

Equorum pars, a part of the horses. Liv. Nihil novi (441, 2), nothing NEW (of NEW). Cic. Nihil reliqui (441, 2), nothing left (lit., of the rest). Sall. Medimnum tritici, a bushel of wheat. Cic. Pecuniae talentum, a talent of money. Nep. Quorum Gaius, of whom Gaius. Cic.

2. With Numerals used substantively: 1

Quorum quattuor, four of whom. Liv. Equitum centum, a hundred of the cavalry. Curt. Sapientum octavus, the eighth of the wise men. Hor. Unus pontium, one of the bridges. Caes.

NOTE.—In good prose the Genitive is not used when the two words refer to the same number of objects, even though of be used in English:

Quī (not quērum) duo supersunt, of achom two survive. Cic. Omnēs hominēs, all men. Cic. But see p. 209, note 4, with foot-note.

3. With *Pronouns* and *Adjectives* used substantively, especially with comparatives, superlatives, and neuters: ²

Quis vestrum, which of you? Cic. Num quidnam novi, is there anything new (of New)? Cic. Consulum alter, one of the consuls. Liv. Prior horum, the former of these. Nep. Gallorum fortissimi, the bravest of the Gauls. Caes. Id temporis, that (of) time. Cic. Multum operae, much (of) service. Cic.

NOTE 1.—Pronouns and adjectives, except neuters, when used with the Partitive Genitive, take the gender of the Genitive, unless they agree directly with some other word; see consulum alter, above.

NOTE 2.—Uterque, 'each,' 'both,' is generally used as an adjective; but when it is combined in the singular number with another pronoun, it usually takes that pronoun in the Genitive;

Uterque exercitus, each army. Caes. Quae utraque, both of which. Sall. Utrique nostrum 3 gratum, acceptable to each of us. Cic.

- 1 Numerals used adjectively agree with their nouns: mīlle hominēs, 'a thousand men'; mīlle hominum, 'a thousand of men'; multī hominēs, 'many men'; multī hominum, 'many of the men.'
- ² As hŏc, id, illud, quid; multum, plūs, plūrimum, minus, minimum, tantum, quantum, etc.
 - 8 A Partitive Genitive, because a pronoun.

Note 3.—For the Partitive Genitive, the Accusative with inter or ante, or the Ablative with ex. de, or in, is sometimes used:

Inter reges opulentissimus, the most wealthy of (among) kings. Sen. Unus ex viris, one of the heroes. Cic. Unus 1 de legatis, one of the lieutenants. Cic.

Note 4.—Poets and late prose writers make a very free use of the Partitive Genitive after adjectives:

Sancta deārum, holy goddess. Enn. Sancte deōrum, O holy god. Verg. Festōs diērum, festal days. Hor. Levēs cohōrtium, the light-armed cohorts. Tac. Inclutus philosophōrum, the renowned philosophēr. Just. Rěliquum diēī, the rest of the day. Liv. Multum diēī, much of the day. Liv. Rěliquum noctis, the rest of the night. Tac. Strāta viārum = strātae viae, paved streets. Verg. Vāna rērum = vānae rēs, vain things. Hor. Hominum cūnctī, all of the men. Ovid. Cūncta terrārum, all lands. Hor. See also 438, 5.

NOTE 5.—The Neuter of pronouns and adjectives with the Partitive Genitive is sometimes used of persons:

Quid hoc est hominis, what kind of a man is this? Plaut. Quidquid erat patrum reos diceres, you would have said that all the senators (lit., whatever there was of fathers) were accused. Liv. Quid hoc tantum hominum incedunt, why are so many men (so much of men) coming hither? Plaut.

4. The Partitive Genitive also occurs with a few adverbs used substantively:³

Armōrum adfatim, abundance of arms. Liv. Lūcis nimis, too much (of) light. Ovid. Sapientiae parum, little (of) wisdom. Sall. Partim cōpiārum, a portion of the forces. Liv. Quod ējus facere potest, as far as (what of it) he is able to do. Cic. Nūsquam gentium, nowhere in the world. Cic. Hūc arrogantiae, to this degree of insolence. Tac. Māximē omnium, most of all. Cic.

398. GENITIVE IN SPECIAL CONSTRUCTIONS.—Note the following:

1. The Governing Word is often omitted. Thus-

Aedēs, templum, discipulus, homō, juvenis, puer, etc.; causa, grātia, and indeed any word when it can be readily supplied:

Ad Jovis (sc. aedem), near the temple of Jupiter. Liv. Hannibal annorum novem (sc. puer), Hannibal, a boy nine years of age. Liv. Aberant biduī (sc. viam or spatium), they were two days' journey distant. Cic. Conferre vitam Trebonī cum Dolābellae (sc. vītā), to compare the life of Trebonius with that of Dolabella. Cic.

NOTE 1.—The governing word is generally omitted when it has been expressed before another Genitive, as in the last example; and then the second Genitive is sometimes attracted into the case of the governing word:

¹ $\bar{U}nus$ is generally followed by the Ablative with $\epsilon\omega$ or $d\bar{\epsilon}$, but sometimes by the Genitive.

² Observe that in this case the partitive idea has entirely disappeared, and that the construction is partitive in form, but not in sense.

³ As with adverbs of QUANTITY—abunde, adfatim, nimis, parum, partim, quoad, satis, etc.; of Place—hie, hūc, nūsquam, ubi, etc.; of Extent, Degree, etc.—eò, hūc, quō; and with superlatives. As adverbs are substantives or adjectives in origin, it is not strange that they are thus used with the Genitive.

Nătūra hominis bēluīs (for bēluārum nātūrae) antecēdit, the nature of man surpasses (that of) the brutes. Cic.

NOTE 2.—In many cases where we supply son, daughter, husband, wife, the ellipsis is only apparent, the Genitive depending directly on the proper noun expressed:

Hasdrubal Gisconis, Gisco's Hasdrubal, or Hasdrubal the son of Gisco. Liv. Hectoris Andromache, Hector's Andromache, or Andromache the wife of Hector. Verg.

2. Two Genitives are sometimes used with the same noun. One is generally subjective, the other either objective or descriptive:

Memmī odium potentiae, Memmius's hatred of power. Sall. Helvētiörum injūriae populī Romānī, the wrongs done by the Helvētii to the Roman people. Caes. Superiorum diērum Sabīnī cunctātiŏ, the delay of Sabinus during (lit., of) the preceding days. Caes.

3. A GENITIVE sometimes accompanies a Possessive, especially the Genitive of ipse, solus, ūnus, or omnis:

Tua ipsius amīcitia, your own friendship. Cic. Meum sõlius peccātum, my fault alone. Cic. Nõmen meum absentis, my name in my absence. Cic.

4. The Genitive is used with instar, 'likeness,' 'image,' in the sense of as large as, of the size of, equal to:

Instar montis equus, a horse of the size of a mountain. Verg.

5. The Genitive is used with prīdiē, postrīdiē, ergō, and tenus:2

Pridie ejus diei, on the day before that day. Caes. Postrīdie ejus diei, on the day after that day. Caes. Virtūtis ergo, on account of virtue. Cic. Lumborum tenus, as far as the loins. Cic. For tenus with the Ablative, see 434.

RULE XVII.—Genitive with Adjectives.

399. Many adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning:

Avidus laudis, desirous of PRAISE. Cic. Ōtiī cupidus, desirous of LEIS-URE. Liv. Conscius conjūrātionis, cognizant of the conspiracy. Sall. Amāns suī virtūs, virtue fond of itself. Cic. Efficiens voluptātis, productive of pleasure. Cic. Gloriae memor, mindful of glory. Liv.

Note.—This Genitive corresponds to the Objective Genitive with nouns:

Amor glöriae, the love of glory. Cic. Appetens glöriae, desirous of (eager for) glory. Cic.

- I. The Genitive is used with adjectives denoting-
- 1. DESIRE OF AVERSION: 3

¹ Ipsius may be explained as agreeing with tui (of you), involved in tua, and solius and absentis as agreeing with mei (of me), involved in meum.

² These words are strictly *nouns*, and, as such, govern the Genitive. *Prīdiē* and *postrīdiē* are Locatives; *ergō* is an Ablative, and *tenus*, an Accusative; see 304; 307, note 1.

Such are—(1) avidus, cupidus, studiösus; fastīdiösus, etc.; (2) gnārus, īgnārus, rönsultus, conscius, inscius, nescius, certus, incertus; providus, prūdēns, imprū-

Contentionis cupidus, desirous of contention. Cic. Sapientiae studiosus, studious of (student of) wisdom. Cic. Terrae fastīdiosus, weary of the land. Hor.

2. Knowledge, Skill, Recollection, with their contraries: 1

Rěi gnārus, acquainted with the thing. Cic. Prūdēns rěi mīlitāris, skilled in military science. Nep. Perītus belli, skilled in war. Nep. Īnsuētus labōris, unaccustomed to labor. Caes. Glōriae memor, mindful of glory. Liv. Immemor beneficiī, forgetful of kindness. Cic.

3. Participation, Guilt, Fulness, Mastery, with their contraries:1

Adfinis culpae, sharing the fault. Cic. Rationis particeps, endowed with (sharing) reason. Cic. Rationis expers, destitute of reason. Cic. Manifestus rerum capitalium, convicted of capital crimes. Sall. Vita metus plena, a life full of fear. Cic. Mei potens sum, I am master of myself. Liv. Virtutis compos, capable of virtue. Cic.

Note 1.—The Genitive and Dative sometimes occur with the same adjective:

Mēns sibǐ cōnscia rēctī, a mind conscious to itself of rectitude. Verg. Sibǐ cōnsciī culpae, conscious to themselves of fault. Cic.

NOTE 2.—For the Genitive with adjectives used substantively, and with adjectives meaning like, unlike, near, belonging to, etc., see 391, II., 4.

Note 3.—For the Genitive with dignus and indignus, see 421, note 3.

II. The Genitive is used with Verbals in $\bar{a}x$, and with Present Participles used adjectively:

Virtūtum ferāx, productive of virtues. Liv. Tenāx propositī, tenacious (steadfast) of purpose. Hor. Amāns patriae, fond of his country.² Cic. Fugiēns laboris, shunning labor. Caes.

III. In the poets and in late prose writers, especially in Tacitus, the Genitive is used—

1. With adjectives of almost every variety of signification, simply to define their application: 3

Aevī matūrus, mature in age. Verg. Ingēns vīrium, mighty in strength. Sall. Sērī studiōrum, late in studies. Hor. Integer aevī, unimpaired in age (i. e., in the bloom of youth). Verg. Aeger animī, aflicted in spirit. Liv. Anxius animī, anxious in mind. Sall. Fīdēns animī, confident in spirit. Verg.

2. With a few adjectives, to denote cause:

Lactus laborum, pleased with the labors. Verg. Notus animi paterni, distinguished for paternal affection. Hor.

dēns; perītus, imperītus, rudis, insuētus; memor, immemor, etc.; (3) adfīnis, consors, exsors, expers, particeps, manifestus, noxius; plēnus, fertilis, refertus, egēnus, inops, vacuus; potēns, impotēns, compos, etc.

1 See foot-note 3, page 210.

2 Amāns patriae, 'fond of his country,' represents the affection as permanent and constant; whereas the participial construction, amāns patriam, 'loving his country,' designates a particular instance or act.

Eike the Ablative of Specification; see 424. For voti reus, 'bound to fulfil a row,' see 410, III., note 2.

⁴ Probably a *Locative* in origin, as animis is used in similar instances in the plural.

400. Adjectives which usually take the Genitive, sometimes admit other constructions:

1. The DATIVE:

Manus subitīs avidae, hands ready for sudden events. Tac. Īnsuētus moribus Romānīs, unaccustomed to Roman manners. Liv. Facinorī mēns conscia, a mind conscious of crime. Cic. See 391.

2. The Accusative with a preposition:

Insuetus ad pugnam, unaccustomed to battle. Liv. Fertilis ad omnia, productive for all things. Plin. Avidus in novas res, eager for new things. Liv.

3. The Ablative with or without a preposition:

Prūdēns in jūre cīvīlī, learned in civil law. Cic. His dē rēbus cōnscius, aware of these things. Cic. Vacuus de dēfēnsōribus, destitute of defenders. Caes. Cūrīs vacuus, free from cares. Cic. Refertus bonīs, replete with blessings. Cic. See 414, III.

RULE XVIII.-Predicate Genitive.

401. A noun predicated of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive:

Omnia hostium erant, all things belonged to the enemy. Liv. Senātus Hannibalis erat, the senate was Hannibal's (i. e., in his interest). Liv. Jūdicis est vērum sequī, to follow the truth is the duty of A Judge. Cic. Parvī pretiī est, it is of small value. Cic. Tyrus mare suae diciōnis 3 fēcit, Tyre brought the sea under (lit., made the sea of) her sway. Curt.

Note 1.—For a noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing, see 362; 373, 1.

NOTE 2.—A PREDICATE GENITIVE is often nearly or quite equivalent to a *Predicate* adjective (360, note 1): hominis est = hūmānum est, 'it is the mark of a man,' 'is human'; stultī est = stultum est, 'it is foolish.' The Genitive is the regular construction in adjectives of one ending: sapiēntis est (for sapiēns est), 'it is the part of a wise man,' 'is wise.'

Note 3.—Possessive pronouns in agreement with the subject supply the place of the Predicate Genitive 4 of personal pronouns:

Est tuum (not tuī) vidēre, it is your duty to see. Cic.

Note 4.—Aequī, bonī, and rēliquī occur as Predicate Genitives in such expressions as aequī facere, aequī bonīque facere, bonī consulere, 'to take in good part,' and rēliquī facere, 'to leave':

Aequi bonique facio, I take it in good part. Ter. Milites nihil reliqui victis feeere, the soldiers left nothing to the ranguished. Sall.

¹ Literally, were of the enemy, or were the enemy's.

² Literally, is of A JUDGE.

³ Here dicionis, denoting a different thing from mare, of which it is predicated, is put in the Genitive.

⁴ This is another illustration of the close relationship between a Predicate Genitive and a Predicate Adjective; see also note 2.

402. The Predicate Genitive is generally Possessive or Descriptive, rarely Partitive:

Haec hostium erant, these things were of (belonged to) THE ENEMY. Liv. Est imperātōris superāre, it is the duty of a commander to conquer. Caes. Summae facultātis est, he is (a man) of the highest ability. Cic. Opera māgnī fuit, the assistance was of great value. Nep. Fīes nobilium fontium, you will become one of the noble fountains. Hor.

403. The Predicate Genitive occurs most frequently with sum and facio, but sometimes also with verbs of seeming, regarding, etc.:

Ōram Rōmānae diciōnis fēcit, he brought the coast under (made the coast of) Roman rule. Liv. Hominis vidētur, it seems to be the mark of a man. Cic. See also examples under 401.

Note.—Transitive verbs of this class admit in the active an Accusative with the Genitive, as in the first example.

404. The Predicate Genitive of price or value is used with sum and with verbs of valuing:

Māgnī sunt tuae lītterae, your letters are of great value. Cic. Plūris esse, to be of greater value. Cic. Parvī pendere, to think lightly of. Sall. Auctoritātem tuam māgnī aestimō, I prize your authority highly. Cic.

Note 1.—With these verbs the *Genitive of price* or *value* is generally an *adjective*,² as in the examples, but *pretii* is sometimes used:

Parvī pretiī est, it is of little value. Cic.

Note 2.-Nihilī and, in familiar discourse, a few other Genitives 3 occur:

Nihilī facere, to take no account of. Cic. Non floccī pendere, not to care a straw (lock of wool) for. Plaut.

405. Tantī, quantī, plūris, and minōris are also used as GENITIVES OF PRICE with verbs of buying and selling: 4

Ēmit hortos tantī, he purchased the gardens at so great a price. Cic. Vēndo frümentum plūris, I sell grain at a higher price. Cic.

Note.—For the Ablative of price, see 422.

RULE XIX.—Genitive with Special Verbs.

406. The Genitive is used—

I. With misereor and miseresco:

Miserēre laborum, pity the labors. Verg. Miserēscite rēgis, pity the king. Verg.

¹ Facultātis and māgnī are Descriptive, but fontium is Partitive.

² The following adjectives are so used: māgnī, parvī, tantī, quantī; plūris, minōris; plūrimī, māximī, and minimī.

³ As āssis, floccī, naucī, and pilī.

⁴ Observe that verbs of buying and selling admit the Genitive of price only when one of these adjectives is used. In other cases they take the Ablative of price.

II. With recordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor: 1

Meminit praeteritorum, he remembers the past. Cic. Oblītus sum meī, I have forgotten myself. Ter. Flāgitiorum recordārī, to recollect base deeds. Cic. Reminiscī virtūtis, to remember virtue. Caes.

III. With refert and interest:

Illörum röfert, it concerns them. Sall. Interest omnium, it is the interest of all. Cic.

Note.—The expression, Venit in mentem, 'it occurs to mind,' is sometimes construed with the Genitive and sometimes with the Nominative:

Venit mihi Platonis in mentem, the recollection of Plato comes to my mind, or I recollect Plato. Cic. Non venit in mentem pugns, does not the battle occur to your mind? Liv.

407. Verbs of REMEMBERING and FORGETTING often take the Accusative instead of the Genitive:

Memineram Paullum, I remembered Paullus. Cic. Triumphōs recordārī, to recall triumphs. Cic. Ea reminiscere, remember those things. Cic.

Note 1.—The Accusative is the common construction (1) with recordor and (2) with the other verbs, if it is a neuter pronoun or adjective, or designates an object remembered by a contemporary or an eye-witness.

NOTE 2.- The Ablative with de is rare:

Recordure de ceteris, bethink yourself of the others. Cic.

408. The Construction with refert and interest is as follows:

- I. The Person interested is denoted-
- 1. By the Genitive, as under the rule.
- 2. By the Ablative Feminine of the Possessive.3 This takes the place of the Genitive of personal pronouns:

Meā rēfert, it concerns me. Ter. Interest meā, it interests me. Cic.

3. By the Dative, or Accusative with or without Ad; but rarely, and chiefly with refert, which moreover often omits the person:

Quid refert viventi, what does it concern one living? Hor. Ad me refert, it concerns me. Plaut.

II. The SUBJECT OF IMPORTANCE, or that which involves the interest, is expressed by an Infinitive or Clause, or by a Neuter Pronoun:

¹ The Genitive with verbs of pitying, remembering, and forgetting probably depends upon the substantive idea contained in the verbs themselves; see Internal Object, 371, I., 2. Thus, memini with the Accusative means I remember distinctly and fully, generally used of an eye-vitness or of a contemporary; but with a Genitive, it means to have some recollection of. With refert the Genitive depends upon re, the Ablative of res, contained in the verb, and with interest it may be a Predicate Genitive, or may simply follow the analogy of refert.

² With venit in mentem, the Genitive Platônis supplies the place of subject. It probably limits the pronominal subject already contained in venit, as in every Latin verb, it or that of Plato, the recollection of Plato.

³ See foot-note 1, above.

Interest omnium recte facere, to do right is the interest of all. Cic. Vestra hoe interest, this interests you. Cic.

III. The Degree of Interest is expressed by an Adverb, by a Neuter used adverbially, or by a Genitive of Value (404):

Vestrā māximē interest, it especially interests you. Cic. Quid nostrā rēfert, what does it concern us? Cic. Māgnī interest meā, it greatly interests me. Cic.

IV. The Object or End for which it is important is expressed by the Accusative with ad, rarely by the Dative:

Ad honorem nostrum interest, it is important for our honor. Cic.

RULE XX.-Accusative and Genitive.

409. The Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing are used with a few transitive verbs:

I. With verbs of reminding, admonishing:

To amicitiae commonefacit, he reminds you of friendship. Cic. Milités necessitätis monet, he reminds the soldiers of the necessity. Ter.

II. With verbs of accusing, convicting, acquitting:

Virōs sceleris arguis, you accuse men of CRIME. Cic. Levitātis eum convincere, to convict him of levity. Cic. Absolvere injūriae eum, to acquit him of injustice. Cic.

III. With miseret, paenitet, pudet, taedet, and piget:

Eōrum nos miseret, we pity them (it moves our pity of them). Cic. Consilii me paenitet, I repent of my purpose. Cic. Me stultitiae meae pudet, I am ashamed of my folly. Cic.

Note 1.—The Genitive of the Thing designates, with verbs of reminding, etc., that to which the attention is called; with verbs of accusing, etc., the crime, charge; and with miseret, paenitet, etc., the object which produces the feeling; see examples.

Note 2.—The personal verbs included under this rule retain the Genitive in the Passive:

Accūsātus est proditionis, he was accused of treason. Nep.

¹ The Genitive with verbs of reminding and admonishing may be explained like that with verbs of pitying, remembering, and forgetting; see foot-note 1, page 214. With verbs of accusing, etc., the Genitive may also be explained in the same way, or may depend upon nomine, crimine, or jūdiciō, understood. Sometimes one of these nouns is expressed; see 410, II., 1.

² The Genitive with paenitet, pudet, etc., like that with venit in mentem (see 406, note, with foot-note), depends upon the impersonal subject contained in the verb. Thus, te have pudent means these things shame you, and me stutittiae mean pudet, literally rendered, means of my folly (i. e., the thought of it, or something about it), shames me. The Genitive with miseret may be explained either in the same way, or like that with misereor; see foot-note 1, page 214.

Note 3.—In judicial language a few verbs not otherwise so used are treated as verbs of accusing. Thus condico occurs with the Genitive in Livy, I., 32.

- 410. Special Constructions.—The following deserve notice:
- I. Verbs of Reminding and Admonishing sometimes take, instead of the Genitive-
- 1. The Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective, rarely of a substantive, thus admitting two accusatives:

Illud më admonës, you admonish me of that. Cic.

- 2. The Ablative with de-moneo and its compounds generally so: De proelio vos admonui, I have reminded you of the battle. Cic.
- II. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, sometimes take, instead of the Genitive of the crime, etc.—
 - 1. The Genitive with nomine, crimine, jūdicio, or some similar word:

Nomine conjurationis damnātī sunt, they were condemned on the charge of conspiracy. Cic. Innocentem jūdicio capitis arcessere, to arraign an innocent man on a capital charge. Cic.

2. The Accusative of a neuter pronoun or adjective, rarely:

Id mē accūsās, you accuse me of that. Plaut.

3. The Ablative alone or with a preposition, generally de:

De pecuniis repetundis damnatus est, he was convicted of extortion. Cic.

III. With verbs of Condemning, the *Penalty* is generally expressed by the *Ablative*, or by the *Accusative with a preposition*, usually ad:

Tertia parte damnārī, to be condemned to forfeit a third of one's land. Liv. Capite damnāre, to condemn to death. Cic. Morte multāre, to punish with death. Cic. Ad bestias condemnāre, to condemn to the wild beasts. Suct.

Note 1.—In the poets the penalty is sometimes expressed by the Dative:

Morti damnātus, condemned to death. Lucr.

Note 2.—The Genitive occurs in such special expressions as capitis condemnāre, 'to condemn to death'; $v\bar{v}t\bar{t}$ damnārī, 'to be condemned to fulfil a vow' = 'to obtain a wish'; damnārī longī labōris, 'to be condemned to long labor'; $v\bar{v}t\bar{t}$ reus $^2=v\bar{v}t\bar{t}$ damnātus, 'condemned to fulfil a vow':

Aliquem capitis condemnäre, to condemn one to death. Cic. Damnätus longī laboris, condemned to long labor. Hor.

IV. With MISERET, PAENITET, PUDET, TAEDET, and PIGET, an Infinitive or Clause is sometimes used, rarely a neuter pronoun or nihil:

Mē paenitet vīxisse, I repent having lived. Cic. Tē haec pudent, these things shame you. Ter.

Note 1.—Like miseret are sometimes used miserèscit, commiserèscit, miserètur, commiserètur. Like taedet are used pertaedet, pertaesum est.

Note 2.—Pudet sometimes takes the Genitive of the person before whom one is a hamed:

Me tui pudet, I am ashamed in your presence. Ter. Pudet hominum, it is a shame in the sight of men. Liv.

¹ Regularly so when the penalty is a definite sum of money.

² Best explained as a substantive.

Note 3.—Pertaesus admits the Accusative of the object:
Pertaesus īgnāviam suam, disgusted with his own inaction. Suct.

V. Many other verbs sometimes take the Genitive. Thus-

1. Some verbs of plenty and want, as complete, implete, egete, indigete, like adjectives of the same meaning (399, I., 3):

Virtus exercitătionis indiget, virtue requires exercise. Cic. Auxilii egēre, to need aid. Caes. Multitudinem rěligionis implēvit, he inspired (filled) the multitude with religion. Liv. Rērum satagere, to be occupied with (to do enough of) business. Ter.

2. Some verbs of desire, emotion, or feeling, like adjectives of the same meaning (399, I., 1):

Cupiunt tuī, they desire you. Plaut. Tuī testimonii veritus, fearing your testimony. Cic. Animī pendeo, I am uncertain in mind. Cic. Discrucior animī, I am troubled in spirit. Plaut. Tē angis animī, you make yourself anxious in mind. Plaut. Dēsipere mentis, to be foolish in mind, or mistaken in opinion. Plaut.

3. A few verbs denoting mastery or participation, like adjectives of the

same meaning (399, I., 3), potior, * adipiscor, regno:

Siciliae potitus est, he became master of Sicily. Nep. Rērum adeptus est, he obtained the power. Tac. Rēgnāvit populörum, he was king of the peoples. Hor.

4. In the poets, a few verbs 5 take the Genitive, instead of the Ablative of Separation or Cause (413):

Abstinēre īrārum, to abstain from anger. Hor. Labōrum dēcipitur, he is beguiled of his labors. Hor. Dēsine querēlārum, cease from complaints. Hor. Dēsistere pūgnae, to desist from the battle. Verg. Eum culpae līberāre, to free him from blame (i. e., to acquit him). Liv. Mīrārī labōrum, to admire because of toils. Verg. Damnī īnfectī prōmittere, to give surety in view of expected damage. Cic.

Note.—For the Genitive of Gerunds and Gerundives, see 542, I.; 544.

SECTION VII.

ABLATIVE.

- 411. The LATIN ABLATIVE performs the duties of three cases originally distinct: 6
 - I. The Ablative Proper, denoting the relation from:

Expulsus est patriā, he was banished from his country. Cic.

² See 421, II.

⁴ Potior takes the Genitive regularly when it means to reduce to subjection.

5 As abstineo, decipio, desino, desisto, levo, libero, etc.; miror, etc.

¹ Transitives of this class of course admit the Accusative with the Genitive.

³ $Anim\bar{\imath}$ in such instances is probably a Locative in origin, as $anim\bar{\imath}s$ is used in the same way in the plural. See foot-note on $anim\bar{\imath}s$, 399, III., 1.

⁶ These three cases, still recognized in the Sanskrit, originally had distinct forms; but in the Latin, under the influence of phonetic change and decay, these forms have

II. The Instrumental, denoting the relation with, by:
Sol omnia lace collustrat, the sun illumines all things with its light. Cic.
III. The Locative, denoting the relation in, at:

Sē oppidō tenet, he keeps himself in the town. Cic.

I. ABLATIVE PROPER.

RULE XXI.-Place from which.

412. The Place from which is denoted by the Ablative:

I. Generally with a preposition—ā, ab, dē, or ex:

Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city. Caes. Dē forō, from the forum. Cic. Ex Africā, from (out of) Africa. Liv.

II. In Names of Towns without a preposition:

Platonem Athēnīs arcessīvit, he summoned Plato from Athens. Nep. Fügit Corinthō, he fled from Corinth. Cic.

 Many names of islands, and the Ablatives domō and rūre, are used like names of towns:

 $\mathit{Dom\delta}$ profugit, he fled from home. Cic. $\mathit{D\bar{e}l\bar{o}}$ proficiscitur, he proceeds from Delos. Cic.

2. The Ablative of places not towns is sometimes used without a preposition, especially in poetry:

Cadere $n\bar{u}bibus$, to fall from the clouds. Verg. Lābī $equ\bar{o}$, to fall from a horse. Hor.

3. The preposition is sometimes used with names of towns, especially for emphasis or contrast:

Ab Ardea Romam venerunt, they came from Ardea to Rome. Liv.

Note.—The preposition is generally used when the vicinity, rather than the town itself, is meant:

Discessit a Brundisio, he departed from Brundisium (i. e., from the port). Caes.

RULE XXII.-Separation, Source, Cause.

413. Separation, Source, and Cause are denoted by the Ablative with or without a preposition:

SEPARATION.—Caedem ā vöbīs dēpellē, I ward off slaughter from you. Cic. Hunc ā tuīs ārīs arcēbis, you will keep this one from your altars.

become identical, and their uses have been blended in a single case called the Ablative. On the general subject of the *Ablative* and its use, see Merguet, pp. 109-117; Delbrück; Hübschmann, pp. 82-106; Holzweissig, pp. 28 and 75; Draeger, I., pp. 494-571; Roby, II., pp. 68-115.

¹ This was the original construction for all places alike.

Cic. Expulsus est patria, he was banished from his country. Cic. Urbem commeatu prīvāvit, he deprived the city of supplies. Nep. Conatu destitērunt, they desisted from the attempt. Caes. Vāgīnā ēripe ferrum, draw your sword from its scabbard. Verg.

Source.—Hoc audivi de parente meo, I heard this from My father. Cic. Oriundi ab Sabīnīs, descended from the Sabines. Liv. Statua ex aere facta, a statue made of bronze. Cic. Abiete puppis, the stern made of fir. Verg. Jove nātus, son of Jupiter. Cic.

CAUSE.—Ars ūtilitāte laudātur, an art is praised BECAUSE OF ITS USEFULNESS. Cic. Lacrimō gaudiō, I weep for (on account of) joy. Ter. Vestrā hoc causā volēbam, I desired this on your account. Cic. Rogātū vēneram, I had come by request. Cic. Ex vulnere aeger, ill in consequence of his wound. Cic. Aeger erat vulneribus, he was ill in consequence of his wounds. Nep.

Note 1.—Transitive Verbs admit an Accusative with the Ablative; see examples.

Note 2.—The prepositions most frequently used with the Ablative of Separation and Source are \bar{a} , ab, $d\bar{e}$, \bar{e} , ex, and with the Ablative of Cause, $d\bar{e}$, \bar{e} , ex.

NOTE 3.—With the Ablative of Separation the preposition is more freely used when the separation is local and literal than when it is figurative: dē forē, 'from the forum'; ex Asiā, 'out of Asia'; but levāre metū, 'to relieve from fear'; cēnātū dēsistere, 'to desist from the undertaking.'

NOTE 4.—For the Genitive instead of the Ablative of Separation, see 410, V., 4; and for the Dative similarly used, see 385, 2.

414. The ABLATIVE of SEPARATION designates that from which anything is separated, or of which it is deprived, and is generally used without a preposition in the following situations:

I. With verbs meaning to relieve, deprive, need, be without: 1

Levā mē hōc onere, relieve me of this burden. Cic. Vinclis exsolvere, to release from chains. Plant. Molestiā expedīre, to relieve of trouble. Cic. Mīlitem praedā fraudāre, to defraud the soldiery of booty. Liv. Non egeō medicīnā, I do not need a remedy. Cic. Vacāre culpā, to be free from fault. Cic. See also examples under 413.

II. With moveo in special expressions:2

Signum movere loco, to move the standard from the place. Cic.

III. With adjectives meaning free from, destitute of:3

Animus līber cūrā, a mind free from care. Cic. Expers metū, free from fear. Cic. Urbs nūda praesidiō, a city destitute of defence. Cic.

Note.—For a similar use of the Genitive,4 see 399, I., 3.

IV. With opus and usus, meaning need:

² As in movere loco, movere senatū, movere tribū, movere vestīgio.

¹ As expedio, exonero, levo, relevo, libero, relaxo, solvo, absolvo, exsolvo; exuo, fraudo, nudo, orbo, spolio, privo, etc.

 $^{^3}$ \bar{A} or ab is generally used with names of persons and sometimes with other words.

Egēnus, indigus, sterilis, and some others are freely used with the Genitive: see 399, I., 3.

Auctoritate tua nobis opus est, we need (there is to us a need of) your authority. Cic. Üsus est tua mihi opera, I need your aid. Plaut.

Note 1.—In most other instances a preposition accompanies the Ablative of Separation, though often omitted in poetry and in late prose.

NOTE 2.—Opus est and usus est admit the Dative of the person with the Ablative of the thing; see examples.

NOTE 3.—With opus and ūsus, the Ablative is sometimes a perfect participle, or, with opus, a noun and a participle:

Consulto opus est, there is need of deliberation. Sall. Opus fuit Hirtio convento, there was need of meeting Hirtius. Cic.

Note 4.-With opus est, rarely with usus est, the thing needed may be denoted-

1) By the Nominative, rarely by the Genitive or Accusative:

Dux nobis opus est, we need a leader, or a leader is necessary (a necessity) for us. Cic. Temporis opus est, there is need of time. Liv. Opus est cibum, there is need of food. Plaut.

2) By an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Supine:

Opus est të valëre, it is necessary that you be well. Clc. Opus est ut lavem, it is necessary for me to bathe (that I bathe). Plaut. Dictu est opus, it is necessary to be told. Ter.

- 415. The ABLATIVE OF SOURCE more commonly takes a preposition; see examples under 413. It includes agency, parentage, material, etc.
- I. The agent or author of an action is designated by the Ablative with a or ab:

Occisus est à Thébanis, he was slain by the Thebans. Nep. Occidit à forti Achille, he was slain (lit., fell) by brave Achilles. Ov.

1. The Ablative without a preposition may be used of a *person*, regarded not as the *author* of the action, but as the *means* by which it is effected:

Cornua Numidīs 1 firmat, he strengthens the wings with Numidians. Liv.

NOTE 1.—The Accusative with per may be used of the person through whose agency the action is effected;

Ab Oppianicō per Fabricios¹ factum est, it was accomplished by Oppianicus through the agency of the Fabrici. Cic.

Note 2.—For the Dative of Agent, see 388.

2. When anything is personified as agent, the Ablative with \bar{a} or ab may be used as in the names of persons:

Vincī ā voluptāte, to be conquered by pleasure. Cic. Ā fortūnā datam occāsionem, an opportunity furnished by fortune. Nep.

II. Perfect Participles denoting parentage or birth—genitus, nātus, ortus, etc.—generally take the Ablative without a preposition:

Jove nātus, son of Jupiter. Cic. Tantalō prognātus, descended from Tantalus. Cic. Parentibus nātī humilibus, born of humble parents. Cic.

¹ Here note the distinction between the Ablative with ab (ab Oppianicō), denoting the author of the action, the Accusative with per (per Fabricōs), the person through whose agency the action was performed, and the Ablative alone (Numidōs), the means of the action.

NOTE.—In designating Remote Ancestry, \bar{a} or ab is generally used; but after $n\bar{a}tus$ and ortus, the Ablatives $famili\bar{a}$, genere, $loc\bar{o}$, and stirpe, when modified by an adjective, omit the preposition:

Oriundī ab Sabīnīs, descended from the Sabines. Liv. Ortī ab Germānīs, sprung

from the Germans. Caes. Nobili genere natus, born of a noble family. Sall.

III. With the ABLATIVE OF MATERIAL, ē or ex is generally used, though often omitted, especially in poetry:

Statua ex aere facta, a statue made of bronze. Cic. Pōcula ex aurō, cups of gold. Cic. Aere cavō clipeus, a shield of concave bronze. Verg. Abiete puppis, the stern made of fir. Verg.

NOTE 1.—A special use of the Ablative, kindred to the above, is seen with facto, fio, and sum in such expressions as the following:

Quid hōc homine faciās, what are you to do with this man? Cic. Quid illo fiet, what will become of him? Cic. Quid to futurum est, what will become of you? Cic.

Note 2.—The Dative or the Ablative with de occurs in nearly the same sense:

Quid huic hominī faciās, what are you to do with (or to) this man? Cic. Quid dō tō futūrum est, what will become of you? Cic.

- 416. The Ablative of Cause is generally used without a preposition. It designates that by reason of which, because of which, in accordance with which anything is or is done, and is used both with verbs and with adjectives; 2 see examples under 413.
 - I. Cause is sometimes denoted-
 - 1) By the Ablative with ā, ab, dē, ē, ex, prae:

Ab eadem superbia and non ventre, not to come because of the same haughtiness. Liv. Ex vulnere ager, ill in consequence of his wound. Cic. Ex invidia laborare, to suffer from unpopularity. Cic. Non prae lacrimis scribere, not to write in consequence of tears. Cic.

2) By the Accusative with ob, per, propter:

Per aetatem inutiles, useless because of (lit., through) their age. Caes. In oppidum propter timorem sese recipiunt, they betake themselves into the city on account of their fear. Caes.

Note 1.—With transitive verbs the *motive* which prompts the action is often expressed by the *Ablative with a perfect passive participle:*

Rēgnī cupiditāte 4 inductus conjūrātionem fecit, influenced by the desire of ruling, he formed a conspiracy. Caes.

Note 2.—That in accordance with which anything is done is often denoted by the Ablatine with e or ex:

¹ The Ablative of Cause is very far removed from the original meaning of the Ablative, and indeed in some of its uses was probably derived from the Instrumental Ablative; see 418.

² This includes such Ablatives as meō jūdiciō, in accordance with my opinion; meā sententiā, jūssū, impulsū, monitū, etc.; causā, grātiā; also the Ablative with dēsipiō, doleō, exsiliō, exsultō, gaudeō, labōrō, lacrimō, laetor, triumphō, etc.

³ See note 2, foot-note.

⁴ Here cupiditate must be construed with inductus, yet it really expresses the cause of the action, fecit.

Rés ex foedere repetuntur, restitution is demanded in accordance with the treaty. Liv. Dies ex praeceptis tuis actus, a day passed in accordance with your precepts. Cic. Ex véritate aestimare, to estimate in accordance with the truth. Cic. Ex auctoritate 1 senatus confirmare, to ratify on the authority of the senate. Liv.

RULE XXIII.-Ablative with Comparatives.

417. Comparatives without QUAM are followed by the Ablative:

Nihil est amābilius virtūte, nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cic. Quid est melius bonitūte, what is better than goodness? Cic. Scīmus sōlem mājōrem esse terrā, we know that the sun is larger than the earth. Cic. Amīcitia, quā nihil melius habēmus, friendship, than which we have nothing better. Cic. Lacrimā nihil citius ārēscit, nothing dries sooner than a tear. Cic. Potiōrem īrā salūtem habet, he regards safety as better than anger. Liv.

1. COMPARATIVES WITH QUAM are followed by the Nominative, or by the case of the corresponding noun before them:

Hibernia minor quam Britannia existimatur, Ireland is considered smaller than Britain. Caes. Agris quam urbi terribilior, more terrible to the country than to the city. Liv.

Note 1.—The construction with quam is the full form for which the Ablative is an abbreviation. The Ablative is freely used for quam with a Subject Nominative or Subject Accusative—regularly so for quam with the Nominative or Accusative of a relative pronoun, as in the fourth example under the rule. In other cases quam is retained in the best prose, though sometimes omitted in poetry.

Note 2.—After plus, minus, amplius, or longius, in expressions of number and quantity, quam is often omitted without influence upon the construction; 4 sometimes also after major, minor, etc.:

Tecum plus annum vixit, he lived with you more than a year. Cic. Minus duo milia, less than two thousand. Liv.

NOTE 3.—Instead of the Ablative after a comparative, a preposition with its case, as ante, prae, praeter, or suprā, is sometimes used:

Ante alios immanior, more monstrous than (before) the others. Verg.

NOTE 4.—Alius, involving a comparison, other than, is sometimes used with the Ablative:

- ¹ These and similar Ablatives with prepositions show the transition from source to cause, and illustrate the manner in which the latter was developed from the former. The Ablative with the preposition seems in general to retain something of the idea of source.
- ² This Ablative furnishes the *standard* of comparison—that from which one starts. Thus, if virtue is taken as the standard of what is lovely, nothing is more so. This Ablative is sometimes explained as instrumental (418), but that view is controverted by a similar use of the Greek Genitive, which does not contain the instrumental Ablative, and of the Sanskrit Ablative, which is often distinct from the instrumental.
- ⁸ Virtūte = quam virtūs; bonitāte = quam bonitās; terrā = quam terram (sc. esse).
- 4 So in expressions of age: nātus plūs trīgintā annōs, having been born more than thirty years.' The same meaning is also expressed by mājor trīgintā annōs nātus, mājor trīgintā annīs, mājor quam trīgintā annōrum, or mājor trīgintā annōrum.

Quaerit alia his, he seeks other things than these. Plaut. Alius sapiente, other than a wise man. Hor.

Note 5.—Quam pro denotes disproportion, and many Ablatives—opinione, spe,

aequō, jūstō, solitō, etc.—are often best rendered by clauses:

Minor caedes quam pro victoria, less slaughter than was proportionate to the victory. Liv. Serius spe venit, he came later than was hoped (than hope). Liv. Plus aequo, more than is fair. Cic.

2. With Comparatives, the Measure of Difference, the amount by which one thing surpasses another, is denoted by the Ablative:

Hibernia $d\bar{\imath}midi\bar{o}$ minor quam Britannia, $Ireland\ smaller\$ by one half $than\ Britain$. Caes.

II. INSTRUMENTAL ABLATIVE.

418. The Instrumental Ablative denotes both Accompaniment and Means.²

RULE XXIV .- Ablative of Accompaniment.

419. The Ablative is used—

I. To denote ACCOMPANIMENT. It then takes the preposition cum:

Vivit cum Balbō, he lives with Balbus. Cic. Cum gladis stant, they stand with swords (i. e., armed with swords). Cic.

II. To denote CHARACTERISTIC or QUALITY. It is then modified by an adjective or by a Genitive:

Summā virtūte adulēscēns, a youth of the highest virtue. Caes. Quīdam māgnō capite, ōre rubicundō, māgnīs pedibus, a certain one with a large head, with a red face, and with large feet. Plaut. Catilīna ingeniō malō fuit, Catiline was a man of a bad spirit. Sall. Ūrī sunt speciē taurī, the urus is (lit., the uri are) of the appearance of a bull. Caes.

Note.—The Ablative, when used to denote characteristic or quality, may be called either the Descriptive Ablative or the Ablative of Characteristic.

III. To denote MANNER.³ It then takes the preposition cum, or is modified by an adjective or by a Genitive:

¹ See 423.

² The idea of means was probably developed from that of accompaniment, as seen in such expressions as cum omnibus copiis sequitur, 'he pursues with all his forces'—accompaniment, which readily suggests means, as he employs his forces as means; equis iverunt, 'they went with horses'—accompaniment and means. Some scholars have conjectured that originally accompaniment and means were expressed by separate case-forms, but of this there seems to be little proof.

³ Note the close connection between these three uses of the Ablative—the first designating an attendant person or thing—with Balbus, with swords; the second, an attendant quality—a youth with (attended by) the highest virtue; the third, an attendant quality—a youth with (attended by) the highest virtue;

Cum virtūte vīxit, he lived virtuously. Cic. Summā vī proelium com mīsērunt, they joined battle with the greatest violence. Nep. Duōbus modīs fit, it is done in two ways. Cic.

Note 1.—The Ablative of manner sometimes takes cum even when modified by an adjective:

Magna cum cura ecripsit, he wrote with great care. Cic.

NOTE 2.—But the Ablative of a few words is sometimes used without *cum*, even when unattended by an adjective, as jūre, 'rightly'; *injūriā*, 'unjustly'; *ordine*, 'in an orderly manner'; *ratione*, 'systematically'; *silentiō*, 'in silence,' etc.'

NOTE 3.—Per, with the Accusative, sometimes denotes MANNER: per vim, 'violently'; per lūdum, 'sportively.'

1. On the ABLATIVE OF ACCOMPANIMENT, observe-

1) That cum is often omitted—(1) especially when the Ablative is qualified by an adjective, and (2) after jungō, misceō, and their compounds:

Ingenti exercitu profectus est, he set out with a large army. Liv. Improbitas scelere juncta, depravity joined with crime. Cic.

2) That the Ablative with cum is often used of hostile encounters:

Cum Gallis certare, to fight with the Gauls. Sall. Nobiscum hostes contenderunt, the enemy contended with us. Cic.

Note.—For the Dative with verbs denoting union or contention, see 385, 4, 3).

- 2. On the Descriptive Ablative, as compared with the Descriptive Genitive, observe—
- 1) That in descriptions involving size and number, the Genitive is used; see examples under 396. V.
- 2) That in most descriptions involving external characteristics, parts of the body, and the like, the Ablative is used, as in the second and fourth examples under 419, II.
 - 3) That in other instances either case may be used.
- 4) That the Ablative, like the Genitive, may be used either with nouns, as in the first and second examples under 419, II., or with verbs in the predicate, as in the other examples.

RULE XXV.-Ablative of Means.

420. Instrument and Means are denoted by the Ablative:

Cornibus taurī sē tūtantur, bulls defend themselves with their horns. Cic. Glōriā dūcitur, he is led by glory. Cic. Sōl omnia lūce collustrat, the sun illumines all things with its light. Cic. Lacte vīvunt, they live upon milk. Caes. Tellūs saucia vomeribus, the earth turned (wounded) with the ploughshare. Ovid.

ant circumstance—to live with virtue, virtuously. Compare cum Balbō vīvere and cum virtūte vīvere.

¹ But perhaps most Ablatives which never take *cum* are best explained as the Ablative of *cause*—as *lēge*, 'according to law'; *cōnsuētūdine*, 'according to custom'; *cōnsuētūdine*, 'according to custom'; *cōnsuētūd*, 'on purpose,' etc.

Note.—This Ablative is of frequent occurrence, and is used both with verbs and with $u\ddot{v}jectives$.

1. The following expressions deserve notice:

1) Quadraginta hostils sacrificare, to sacrifice with forty victims. Liv. Facere vitula, to make a sacrifice of (lit., with) a female calf. Verg.

2) Fidibus cantāre, to play upon a stringed instrument. Cic. Pilā lūdere,

to play at ball (lit., WITH THE BALL). Hor.

- 3) Aurēliā viā proficiscī, to set out by the Aurelian way. Cic. Eōdem itinere īre, to go by the same road. Liv. Esquilīnā portā ingredī, to enter by the Esquilīne gate. Liv.
- 4) Virtūte praeditus, possessed of virtue. Cic. Legionēs pulchrīs armīs praeditās, legions furnished with beautiful arms. Plaut.
- 2. Adficio with the Ablative forms a very common circumlocution: honore adficere = honorare, to honor; admiratione adficere = admirari, to admire; poena adficere = punire, to punish, etc.:

Omnës laetitia adficit, he gladdens all. Cic.

RULE XXVI.-Ablative in Special Constructions.

421. The Ablative is used—

I. With ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds:

Plūrimīs rēbus fruimur et ūtimur, we enjoy and use very many things. Cic. Magnā est praedā potītus, he obtained great booty. Nep. Lacte et carne vescēbantur, they lived upon milk and flesh. Sall.

II. With VERBS and ADJECTIVES OF PLENTY:

Villa abundat lacte, cāseō, melle; the villa abounds in milk, cheese, and honey. Cic. Urbs referta copiīs, a city filled with supplies. Cic. Virtūte praeditus, endowed with virtue. Cic. Deus bonīs explēvit mundum, God has filled the world with blessings. Cic.

III. With dignus, indignus,2 and contentus:

Dīgnī sunt amīcitiā, they are worthy of friendship. Cic. Vir patre dīgnus, a man worthy of his father. Cio. Honore indīgnissimus, most unworthy of honor. Cic. Nātūra parvo contenta, nature content with little. Cic.

Note 1.—Transitive verbs of Plenty 3 take the Accusative and Ablative:

Armis naves onerat, he loads the ships with arms. Sall. See also the last example under 421, II.

Note 2.—Dignor, as a Passive verb meaning 'to be deemed worthy,'

¹ This Ablative is readily explained as the Ablative of means: thus, ūtor, 'I use,' 'I serve myself by means of'; fruor, 'I enjoy,' 'I delight myself with'; vescor, 'I feed upon,' 'I feed myself with,' etc.

² The nature of the Ablative with *dīgnus* and *indīgnus* is somewhat uncertain. On etymological grounds it is explained as *instrumental*; see Delbrück, p. 72; Corssen, 'Krit. Beltr.,' p. 47.

³ Transitive verbs of plenty mean 'to fill,' 'to furnish with,' etc., as cumulo, compleo, impleo, imbuo, instruo, onero, orno, etc.

takes the Ablative; but as a Deponent verb meaning 'to deem worthy,' used only in poetry and late prose, it takes the Accusative and Ablative:

Honore dignati sunt, they have been deemed worthy of honor. Cic. Me dignor honore, I deem myself worthy of honor. Verg.

Note 8 .- Dignus and indignus occur with the Genitive :

Dignus salūtis, worthy of safety. Plaut. Indignus avorum, unworthy of their ancestors. Verg.

Note 4.— $\overline{U}tor$, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor, originally transitive, are occasionally so used in classic authors. Their participle in dus is passive in sense. $\overline{U}tor$ admits two Ablatives of the same person or thing:

Me utetur patre, he will find (use) me a father. Ter.

NOTE 5.—For the Genitive with potior, see 410, V., 3. For the Genitive with verbs and adjectives of plenty, and for the Accusative and Genitive with transitive verbs of plenty, see 410, V., 1, with foot-note, and 399, I., 3.

RULE XXVII.-Ablative of Price.

422. Price is generally denoted by the Ablative:

Vēndidit aurō patriam, he sold his country for Gold. Verg. Condūxit māgnō domum, he hired a house at a high frice. Cic. Multō sanguine Poenīs vīctōria stetit, the victory cost the Carthaginians (stood to the Carthaginians at) much blood. Liv. Quīnquāgintā talehtīs aestimārī, to be valued at fifty talents. Nep. Vile est vīgintī minīs, it is cheap at twenty minae. Plaut.

Note 1.—The Ablative of Price is used (1) with verbs of buying, selling, hiring, letting; (2) of costing, of being cheap or dear; 1 (3) of valuing; (4) with adjectives of value. 1

Note 2.—With verbs of Exchanging—mūtō, commūtō, etc.—(1) the thing received is generally treated as the price, as with verbs of selling, but (2) sometimes the thing given is treated as the price, as with verbs of buying, or is put in the Ablative with cum:

Pace bellum mūtāvit, he exchanged war for peace. Sall. Exsilium patriā mūtāvit, he exchanged his country for exile. Curt. Cum patriae cāritāte glōriam commūtāvit, he exchanged love of country for glory. Cic.

Note 3 .- For the GENITIVE OF PRICE, see 405.

RULE XXVIII.-Ablative of Difference.

423. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative:

Ūnō diē longiōrem mēnsem faciunt, they make the month one day longer (longer by one day). Cic. Biduō mē antecēssit, he preceded me by two days. Cic. Sōl multīs partibus mājor est quam terra, the sun is very much (lit., by many parts) larger than the earth. Cic.

Note 1.—The Ablative is thus used with all words involving a comparison, but adverbs often supply its place: multum robustior, 'much more robust.'

Note 2.—The Ablative of difference includes the Ablative of distance (379, 2), and the Ablative with ante, post, and abhinc in expressions of time (430).

¹ As sto, consto, liceo, sum, etc.; carus, vēnālis, etc.

RULE XXIX.—Specification.

424. A noun, adjective, or verb may take an Ablative to define its application:

Agēsilāus nōmine, nōn potestāte fuit rēx, Agesilaus was king in name, not in power. Nep. Claudus alterō pede, lame in one foot. Nep. Mōribus similēs, similar in character. Cic. Reliquōs Gallōs virtūte praecēdunt, they surpass the other Gauls in courage. Caes.

NOTE 1.—This Ablative shows in what respect or particular anything is true: thus, king (in what respect?) in name.

Note 2.-For the Accusative of Specification, see 378.

III. LOCATIVE ABLATIVE.

RULE XXX.-Place in which.

425. The Place in which is denoted—

I. Generally by the Locative Ablative' with the preposition in:

Hannibal $in\ \check{I}tali\bar{a}$ fuit, $Hannibal\ was\ in\ Italy$. Nep. In nostrīs castrīs, $in\ our\ camp$. Caes. In Appiā viā, on the Appian way. Cic.

II. In NAMES OF TOWNS by the Locative, if such a form exists, otherwise by the Locative Ablative:

Rōmae fuit, he was at Rome. Cic. Corinthī puerōs docēbat, he taught boys at Corinth. Cic. Athēnīs fuit, he was at Athens. Cic. Hǒc facis Argīs, you do this at Argos. Hor. Karthāgine rēgēs creābantur, kings were elected (created) at Carthage. Nep. Gādibus vīxit, he lived at Gades. Cic.

Note.—For the construction with verbs meaning to collect, to come together, and with those meaning to place, see 380, note.

- 1. In the names of places which are not towns, the LOCATIVE ABLATIVE is often used without a preposition:
- 1) When the idea of means, manner, or cause is combined with that of place: 3

Castris se tenuit, he kept himself in camp. Caes. Aliquem tecto recipere, to receive any one in one's own house. Cic. Proelio cadere, to fall in battle. Caes. Adulescentibus delectari, to take pleasure in the young. Cic. Sua

¹ The learner will remember that the *Locative Ablative* does not differ in *form* from any other Ablative; see 411.

 $^{^2}$ See 48, 4; 51, 8; 66, 4. The Locative was the original construction in all names of places.

³ In some cases *place* and *means* are so combined that it is difficult to determine which is the original conception.

vīctōriā glōriantur, they glory in their victory. Caes. Nūllō officiō assuēfactī, trained in no duty. Caes.

Note.—The Ablative is generally used with fido, confido, nitor, innitor, and fretus:
Nēmo fortūnae stabilitāte confidit, no one trusts (confides in) the stability of fortune. Cic. Salūs vēritāte nītitur, safety rests upon truth. Cic. Frētus amīcis, relying upon his friends. Liv.

2) When the idea of place is figurative rather than literal:

Nova pectore versat consilia, she devises (turns over) new plans in her breast. Verg. Stare jūdiciīs, to abide by (stand in) the decisions. Cic. Promissīs manēre, to remain true to promises (lit., remain in). Verg. Pendere animīs,¹ to be perplexed in mind. Cic. Intimīs sonsibus angī, to be troubled in one's inmost feelings. Cic. Ferox bello, valiant in war. Hor. Jūre perītus, skilled in law. Cic.

2. The Ablatives loco, locos, parte, partibus, dextra, laeva, sinistra, terra, and mari, especially when qualified by an adjective, and other Ablatives when qualified by tōtus, are generally used without the preposition:

Aliquid locō pōnere, to put anything in its place. Cic. Terrā marīque, on land and sea. Liv. Tōtā Graeciā, in all Greece. Nep.

Note 1.—The Ablative libro, 'book,' generally takes the preposition when used of a portion of a work, but omits it when used of an entire treatise:

In eō librō, in this book (referring to a portion of the work). Cic. Aliō librō, in another work. Cic.

Note 2.—Other Ablatives sometimes occur without the preposition, especially when qualified by omnis, medius, or universus:

Omnibus oppidis, in all the towns. Caes.

Note 3.—In poetry the Locative Ablative is often used without the preposition:

Lūcīs opācīs, in shady groves. Verg. Silvīs agrīsque, in the forests and fields. Ov. Theātrīs, in the theatres. Hor. Ferre umerō, to bear upon the shoulder. Verg.

- 3. Ablative for the Locative.—Instead of the Locative in names of towns the Ablative is used, with or without a preposition—
- 1) When the proper name is qualified by an adjective or adjective pronoun: In ipsā Alexandrīā,² in Alexandria itself. Cic. Longā Albā, at Alba Longa. Verg.

2) Sometimes when not thus modified:

In monte Albānō Lāvīniōque, on the Alban mount and at Lavinium. Liv. In Alexandrīā,² at Alexandria. Liv.

Note.—The following special constructions deserve notice:

In oppidō Citiō, in the town Citium. Nep. Albae, in urbe opportūnā, at Alba, a convenient city. Cic.

² At Alexandria would regularly be expressed by the Locative, Alexandriae.

⁴ A Locative may thus be followed by in urbe, or in oppido, modified by an adjective; but see 363, 4, 2). The preposition in is sometimes omitted.

 $^{^1}$ In the singular $anim\bar{\imath}$ is generally used, a Locative probably both in form and in signification; see p. 211, foot-note 4.

³ Here $Citi\bar{o}$ is in apposition with $oppid\bar{o}$, the usual construction in such cases, though a Genitive limiting $oppid\bar{o}$ occurs: In oppid \bar{o} Antiochīae, in the city of Antioch. Cic.

426. LIKE NAMES OF TOWNS are used—

1. Many Names of Islands:

Lesbī vīxit, he lived in Lesbos. Nep. Conon Cyprī vīxit, Conon lived in Cyprus. Nep.

2. The Locatives domi, rūrī, humī, mīlitiae, and bellī:

Domī mīlitiaeque, at home and in the field. Cic. Rūrī agere vītam, to spend life in the country. Liv.

Note .- A few other Locatives also occur:

Rōmae Numidiaeque, at Rome and in Numidia. Sall. Domum Chersonēsī habuit, he had a house in the Chersonesus. Nep. Truncum relīquit arēnae, he left the body in the sand. Verg.

427. SUMMARY.—The NAMES OF PLACES NOT TOWNS are generally put—

I. In the Accusative with ad or in, to denote the PLACE TO WHICH:

In Asiam redit, he returns to (into) Asia. Nep.

II. In the Ablative with ab, do, or ex, to denote the place from which: Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city. Caes.

III. In the Locative Ablative with in, to denote the PLACE AT OR IN WHICH: Hannibal in Italia fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. Nep.

Note.—For qualifications and exceptions, see 380, 3 and 4; 412, 2; 425, 1 and 2.

428. Summary.—The Names of Towns are put 2—

I. In the Accusative, to denote the PLACE TO WHICH:

Nuntius Romam redit, the messenger returns to Rome. Liv.

II. In the Ablative, to denote the PLACE FROM WHICH:

Fügit Corintho, he fled from Corinth. Cic.

III. In the Locative, or in the Locative Ablative, 3 to denote the PLACE AT or IN WHICH:

Corinthī pueros docēbat, he taught boys at Corinth. Cic. Gādibus vīxit, he lived at Gades. Cic.

Note.-For qualifications and exceptions, see 380, 1; 412, 8; 425, 8.

RULE XXXI.-Time.

429. The Time of an Action is denoted by the Ablative:

Octōgēsimō annō est mortuus, he died in his eightieth year. Cic. $V\bar{e}re$ convēnēre, they assembled in the spring. Liv. Nātālī diē suō, on his birth-

¹ So also terrae and vīcīniae.

² This, the original construction for all names of places, has been retained unchanged only in the names of towns and in a few other words. Most names of places have assumed a preposition with the Accusative and Ablative, and have substituted the Locative Ablative with a preposition in place of the Locative; see 411, III.

³ That is, the Locative is used if any such form exists; if not, the Locative Ablative supplies its place.

day. Nep. Hieme et aestäte, in winter and summer. Cic. Sölis occāsū, at sunset. Caes. Adventū Caesaris, on the arrival of Caesar. Caes. Lūdīs, at the time of the games. Cic. Vix decem annīs, scarcely in ten years. Nep. His vīgintī annīs, within these twenty years. Cic.

1. Certain relations of Time are denoted by the Ablative with in or de:

In tall tempore, at such a time (i. e., under such circumstances). Liv. In diebus proximis decem, in the next ten days. Sall. De media nocte, in (lit., from, out of) the middle of the night. Caes.

2. Certain relations of Time are denoted by the Accusative with ad, in, inter, intrā, sub, etc.:

Ad constitutam diem, at the appointed day. Cic. Ad conam inviture in posterum diem, to invite to dinner for the next day. Cic. Intra viginti dies, within twenty days. Plaut. Inter tot annos, within so many years. Cic. Sub noctem, toward night. Caes.

430. The Interval between two events may be denoted by the Accusative or Ablative with ante or post:²

Aliquot post mēnsēs 3 oceīsus est, he was put to death some months after. Cic. Post dies paucos vēnit, he came after a few days. Liv. Paucīs ante diebus, 3 a few days before. Cic. Homerus annīs multīs fuit ante Rōmulum, Homer lived many years before Romulus. Cic. Paucīs diebus post ējus mortem, a few days after his death. Cic. Annīs quīngentīs post, five hundred years after. Cic. Quartum post annum quam redierat, four years after he had returned. Nep. Nonō annō postquam, nine years after. Nep. Sextō annō quam erat expulsus, six years after he had been banished. Nep.

Note 1 .- In these examples observe-

- 1) That the numeral may be either cardinal, as in the sixth example, or ordinal, as in the last three.4
- 2) That with the Accusative ante and post either precede the numeral and the noun, or stand between them; but that with the Ablative they either follow both, or stand between them.⁵
- 3) That quam may follow ante and post, as in the seventh example; may be united with them, as in the eighth, or may be used for postquam, as in the ninth.

Note 2.—The Ablative of the Relative may be used for postquam: Quatriduo, quo occisus est, four days after he was killed. Cic.

² In two instances the Ablative with abhinc is used like the Ablative with ante: Abhinc triginta dicbus, thirty days before. Cic.

³ The Accusative after ante and post depends upon the preposition, but the Ablative is explained as the measure of difference (423).

¹ The Ablative with in is used to denote (1) the circumstances of the time, and (2) the time in or within which. In the second sense it is used especially after numeral adverbs and in designating the periods of life: bis in diē, 'twice in the day'; in pueritiā, 'in boyhood,' etc.

⁴ Thus, 'five years after' = quinque annis post, or quinto anno post; or post quinque annos, or post quintum annum; or with post between the numeral and the noun, quinque post annis, etc.

⁵ Any other arrangement is rare.

Note 3.—The time since an event may be denoted by the Accusative with abhine or ante, or by the Ablative with ante: 1

Abhine annos trecentos fuit, he lived three hundred years ago. Cic. Paucis anto dicbus erupit ex urbe, he broke out of the city a few days ago. Cic.

RULE XXXII.—Ablative Absolute.2

431. A noun and a participle may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an attendant circumstance:

Serviō rēgnante viguērunt, they flourished in the reign of Servius (Servius reigning). Cic. Rēgibus exāctīs, cōnsulēs creātī sunt, after the banishment of the kings, consuls were appointed. Liv. Equitātū praemissō, subsequēbātur, having sent forward his cavalry, he followed. Caes. Rēgnum haud satis prōsperum neglēctā rěligiōne, a reign not sufficiently prosperous because religion was neglected. Liv. Perditīs rēbus omnibus tamen virtūs sē sustentāre potest, though all things are lost, still virtue is able to sustain itself. Cic. Obsidibus imperātīs, hōs Aeduīs trādit, having demanded hostages, he delivers them to the Aedui. Caes.

- 1. The Ablative Absolute, much more common than the English Nominative Absolute, generally expresses the time, cause, or some attendant circumstance of an action.
- 2. This Ablative is generally best rendered—(1) by a noun with a preposition—in, during, after, by, with, through, etc.; (2) by an active participle with its object; or (3) by a clause with when, while, because, if, though, etc.; see examples above.
 - 3. A connective sometimes accompanies the Ablative:

Nisi mūnītīs castrīs, unless the camp should be fortified. Caes.

4. A noun and an adjective, or even two nouns, may be in the Ablative Absolute:

¹ The Accusative is explained as duration of time (379), the Ablative as measure of difference (423).

2 This Ablative is called absolute, because it is not directly dependent for its construction upon any other word in the sentence. Originally Locative, it was first used to denote situation or time, a meaning from which its later uses may be readily derived. Thus, while the force of a Locative Ablative is apparent in Servio regnante and in regibus exacts, it is recognized without difficulty in neglecta religione as indicating the situation or state of things in which the reign was not prosperous. In some instances, however, the Ablative Absolute may be instrumental or causal.

3 Or, while Servius was reigning or was king.

4 Or, after the kings were banished.

⁵ In this example *obsidibus* and *hōs* refer to the same persons. This is unusual, as in this construction the Ablative generally refers to some person or thing not otherwise mentioned in the clause to which it belongs.

6 The first method of translation comes nearer the original Latin conception, but the other methods generally accord better with the English idiom.

⁷ This construction is peculiar to the Latin. In the corresponding constructions in Sanskrit, Greek, and English, the present participle of the verb 'to be' is used.

Serēnō caelō, when the sky is clear. Sen. Canīniō consule, in the consulship of Caninius. Cic.

Note 1.—An infinitive or clause may be in the Ablative Absolute with a neuter participle or adjective:

Audītō Dārīum mōvisse, pergit, having heard that Darius had withdrawn (that Darius had, etc., having been heard), he advanced. Curt. Multī, incertō quid vitārent, interiōrunt, many, uncertain what they should avoid (what they, etc., being uncertain), perished. Liv.

Note 2 .- A participle or adjective may stand alone in the Ablative Absolute:

Multum certato, pervicit, he conquered after a hard struggle.1 Tac.

Note 3.—Quisque or ipse in the Nominative may accompany the Ablative Absolute: Multis sibl quisque petentibus, while many sought, each for himself. Sall. Causā ipse pro so dictā damnātur, having himself advocated his own cause, he is condemned. Liv.

NOTE 4.—For the use of absente and praesente in the Ablative Absolute with a plural noun or pronoun, see 438, 6, note.

SECTION VIII.

CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

RULE XXXIII.-Cases with Prepositions.

432. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with prepositions:²

Ad amīcum scrīpsī, I have written to a friend. Cic. In cūriam, into the senate-house. Liv. In Ĭtaliā, in Italy. Nep. Prō castrīs, before the camp.

433. The Accusative is used with-

Ad, adversus (adversum), ante, apud, circā, circum, circiter, cis, citrā, contrā, ērgā, extrā, īnfrā, inter, intrā, juxtā, ob, penes, per, pōne, post, praeter, prope, propter, secundum, suprā, trāns, ūltrā, versus:

Ad urbem, to the city. Cic. Adversus deos, toward the gods. Cic. Ante lucem, before light. Cic. Apud concilium, in the presence of the council. Cic. Circa forum, around the forum. Cic. Citra flumen, on this side of the river. Cic. Contra naturam, contrary to nature. Cic. Intra muros, within the walls. Cic. Post castra, behind the camp. Caes. Secundum naturam, according to nature. Cic. Trans Alpes, across the Alps. Cic.

Note 1.—Exadversus (um) also occurs with the Accusative:

Exadversus eum locum, over against that place. Cic. See also 437.

Note 2.—Versus (um) and usque, as adverbs, often accompany prepositions, especially ad and in:

Ad oceanum versus, toward the ocean. Caes. Ad meridiem versus, toward the south. Liv. Usque ad castra hostium, even to the camp of the enemy. Caes.

¹ Literally, it having been much contested. The participle is used impersonally.

On the general subject of Prepositions and their Use, see Roby, II., pp. 351-456; Draeger, I., pp. 574-665; Kühner. II., pp. 355-432.

Note 3.—For propius, proxime, propior, and proximus, with the Accusative, see prope, note 2, under I., below.

Note 4.-For compounds of prepositions, see 372 and 376.

I. The following uses of prepositions with the Accusative deserve notice:1

Ad, to, the opposite of ab, FROM—(1) to, TOWARD, TILL; (2) NEAR, AT, ON: ad mē, 'to me,' 'near me,' 'at my house'; ad urbem, 'to the city,' 'near the city'; ad dextram, 'on the right'; ad multam noctem, 'till late in the night'; ad lūcem, 'till daybreak'; ad hoc, 'besides this,' 'moreover'; ad verbum, 'word for word'; ad hune modum, 'after this manner'; ad ūltimum, 'at last'; ad ūnum omnēs, 'all to a man,' 'all without exception.'

Apud, NEAR, AT, BEFORE, IN THE PRESENCE OF: apud oppidum, 'near or before the town'; apud mē, 'at my house'; sum apud mē, 'I am at home' or 'I am in my right mind'; apud Platōnem, 'in the works of Plato.'

Ante, BEFORE, IN FRONT OF, ABOVE, IN PREFERENCE TO: ante suōs annōs, 'before his time,' 'too early'; ante tempus, 'before the proper time'; ante annum, 'a year before'; ante urbem conditam, 'before the founding of the city'; ante aliōs pulcherrimus omnēs, 'the most beautiful above all others.'

Circum, circa, circiter, 2 ROUND, AROUND, ABOUT: circum forum, 'around the forum'; circa se, 'around or with himself'; circa eandem horam, 'about the same hour'; circiter meridiem, 'about midday.'

Note.—Circum, the oldest of these forms, is used only of place; circā, both of place and of time; circiter, rare as a preposition, chiefly of time. They are all freely used as adverbs: circum conventre, 'to gather around'; circā esse, 'to be around'; circiter pars quarta, 'about the fourth part.'

Cis, citrā,3 on this side—cis opposed to trāns, across, on the other side; citrā opposed to ūltrā, beyond: cis flūmen, 'on this side of the stream'; cis paucōs diēs, 'within a few days'; citrā vēritātem, 'short of the truth'; citrā auctōritātem, 'without authority.'

Contrā, opposite to, over against, against, contrary to: contrā eās regions, opposite to those regions; contrā populum, against the people; contrā nātūram, contrary to nature.

Ergā, toward, to, against: ērgā parentēs, 'toward parents'; odium ērgā Römānōs, 'hatred to the Romans'; ērgā rēgem, 'against the king.'

Extrā, outside, without, free from, except: extrā portam, 'outside the gate'; extrā culpam, 'without fault,' 'free from fault'; extrā ducem, 'except the leader,' 'besides the leader.'

Infrā, 5 below, under, beneath, less than, after, later than, opposed to suprā, above: infrā lūnam, 'beneath the moon'; infrā mē, 'below me'; infrā très pedēs, 'less than three feet'; infrā Lycūrgum, 'after Lycurgus.'

¹ For the form and meaning of prepositions in composition, see 344, 5.

² These three forms are all derived from *circus*, 'a circle' (i. e., from its stem); see 304; 307, note 1.

³ These are often adverbs.

⁴ According to Vanicek, from ē and the root reg in regō; 'in the direction of' (lit., from the direction of). In Tacitus, sometimes in relation to: ērgā domum suam, 'in relation to his own household.'

⁵ Infra = infera parte, 'in the lower part'

Inter,¹ between, among, in the midst of: inter urbem et Tiberim, 'between the city and the Tiber'; inter bonōs, 'among the good'; inter manūs, 'in the hands,' 'within reach,' 'tangible'; inter nōs, 'between us,' 'in confidence'; inter sē amāre, 'to love one another'; inter sē differre, 'to differ from one another'; inter paucōs, inter pauca, 'especially,' 'preēminently'; inter paucōs disertus, 'preēminently eloquent'; inter purpuram atque aurum, 'in the midst of purple and gold.'

Intrā, within, less than, below, opposed to extrā, on the outside, without: intrā castra, 'within the eamp'; intrā mē, 'within me'; intrā sē, 'in his mind' or 'in their minds'; intrā centum, 'less than one hundred', intrā modum, 'within the limit'; intrā fāmam, 'below his reputation.'

Ob, BEFORE, IN VIEW OF, IN REGARD TO, ON ACCOUNT OF: ob oculos, 'before one's eyes'; ob stultitiam tuam, 'in view of your folly,' or 'in regard to your folly'; ob hanc rem, 'in view of this thing,' 'for this reason,' 'on this account'; quam ob rem, 'in view of which thing,' 'wherefore.'

Per, Through, by the aid of: per forum, 'through the forum'; per alios, 'through others,' 'by the aid of others'; per sē, 'by his own efforts,' also 'in himself,' 'in itself'; per metum, 'through fear'; per aetātem, 'in consequence of age'; per lūdum, 'sportively'; per vim, 'violently'; per mē licet, 'it is allowable as far as I am concerned' (i. e., I make no opposition).

Post, BEHIND, AFTER, SINCE: post montem, 'behind the mountain'; post dedicationem templi, 'after the dedication of the temple'; post hominum memorium, 'since the memory of man.'

Praeter, 5 Before, Alono, Past, BY, Beyond, Besides, Except, Contrary to: praeter oculos, 'before their eyes'; praeter oram, 'along the coast'; praeter ceteros, 'beyond others,' 'more than others'; praeter hace = praeter-eā, 'besides these things,' 'moreover'; praeter mē, 'except me'; praeter spem, 'contrary to expectation.'

Prope, propter, NEAR, NEAR BY. Prope, NEAR; propter = propeter, a strengthened form of prope, VERY NEAR, ALONGSIDE OF, also IN VIEW OF, ON ACCOUNT OF: prope hostes, 'near the enemy'; prope metum, 'near to fear,' 'almost fearful'; propter mare, 'near the sea'; propter timōrem, 'on account of fear'; propter sē, 'on his own account,' 'on their own account.'

Note 1.—Prope, as an adverb, is sometimes combined with \bar{a} , ab, or ad: prope \bar{a} Sicilia, 'near Sicily,' 'not far from Sicily'; prope ad portas, 'near to the gates.'

Note 2.—Like props, the derivatives propius and proxims, and sometimes even propior and proximus, admit the Accusative: 7

Propius periculum, nearer to danger. Liv. Proxime deos, very near to the gods.

¹ Formed from in by the ending ter, like prae-ter from prae (434, I.), prop-ter from prope (433, I.), and sub-ter from sub (435, I.).

² Often equivalent to in meō animō, 'in my mind.'

³ Sometimes, in his country, or in their country.

⁴ In origin kindred to the Greek παρά.

⁵ Formed from prae (434, I.), like in-ter from in; see inter, with foot-note.

⁶ See inter, with foot-note.

⁷ Perhaps by a construction according to sense, following the analogy of prope, though in most cases a preposition may readily be supplied.

Cic. Propior montem, nearer to the mountain. Sall. Proximus mare, nearest to the sea. Caes.

Secundum, 1 Following, NEXT AFTER, NEXT BEHIND, ALONGSIDE OF, CONFORMING TO, ACCORDING TO, IN FAVOR OF: secundum āram, 'behind the altar'; secundum deōs, 'next after the gods'; secundum lūdōs, 'after the games'; secundum flūmen, 'along the river'; secundum nūtūram, 'according to nature,' 'following nature'; secundum causam nostram, 'in favor of our cause.'

Suprā,3 on the top, above, before, too high for; opposed to infrā, below: suprā lūnam, 'above the moon'; suprā hanc memoriam, 'before our time'; 4 suprā hominem, 'too high for a man.'

Trāns, Across, on the other side, opposed to cis, on this side: trāns Rhēnum, 'across the Rhine'; trāns Alpēs, 'on the other side of the Alps.'

Ūltrā, BEYOND, ACROSS, ON THE OTHER SIDE, MORE THAN, LONGER THAN, AFTER, opposed to citrā, on this side: ūltrā eum locum, 'beyond that place'; ūltrā eum, 'beyond him'; ūltrā pīgnus, 'more than a pledge'; ūltrā fidem, 'beyond belief,' 'incredible'; ūltrā puerīlēs annōs, 'after (beyond) the years of boyhood.'

434. The Ablative is used with-

 $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$ or ab (abs), absque, cōram, cum, dē, $\bar{\mathbf{e}}$ or ex, prae, prō, sine, tenus,

Ab urbe, from the city. Caes. Cōram conventū, in the presence of the assembly. Nep. Cum Antiochō, with Antiochus. Cic. Dē forō, from the forum. Cic. Ex Asiā, out of Asia. Nep. Sine corde, without a heart. Cic.

Note 1.—Many verbs compounded with ab, $d\bar{c}$, ex, or super admit the Ablative dependent upon the preposition, but the preposition is often repeated, or some other preposition of kindred meaning is used:

Abīre magistrātū, to retire from office. Tac. Pūgnā excēdunt, they retire from the battle. Caes. Dē vītā dēcēdere, to depart from life. Cic. Dēcēdere ex Asiā, to depart out of Asia. Cic.

Note 2.— \vec{A} and \vec{e} are used only before consonants, ab and ex before either vowels or consonants. Abs is antiquated, except before $t\vec{e}$.

Note 3.—For *cum* appended to the Ablative of a personal pronoun or of a relative, see 184, 6, and 187, 2.

NOTE 4.—Tenus follows its case. In its origin it is the Accusative of a noun,6 and as such it often takes the Genitive:

Collo tenus, up to the neck. Ov. Lumborum tenus, as far as the loins. Cic.

¹ Properly the neuter of secundus, 'following,' second'; but secundus is a gerundive from sequor, formed like $d\bar{v}$ cundus from $d\bar{v}$ co (239). For the change of qu to c before u in sec-undus for sequ-undus, see 26, foot-note.

² Like the adjective secundus in ventus secundus, 'a favoring wind'—one that follows as on our course; Aŭmine secundō, 'with a favoring current' (i. e., down the stream).

³ Suprā = superā parte, 'on the top.'

⁴ Literally, before this memory. For hic meaning my or our, see 450, 4, note 1.

⁵ Though in such cases the first element of the compound is not strictly a preposition, but an adverb (344, with foot-note). Thus, in dē vītā dēcēdere, dē in the verb retains its adverbial force, so that, strictly speaking, the preposition is used only once.

From the root tan, ten, seen in ten-do, ten-eo, and in the Greek τειν-ω.

Norz 5.—For the Ablative with or without $d\bar{e}$, as used with $faci\bar{o}$, $f\bar{\imath}\bar{o}$, and sum, see 415, III., note.

I. The following uses of prepositions with the Ablative deserve notice:

Ā, ab,¹ abs, from, by, in, on, on the side of. 1. Of Place; from, on, on the side of: ā Galliā, 'from Gaul'; ab ortū, 'from the east'; ā fronte, 'in front' (lit., from the front); ā tergō, 'in the rear'; ab Sēquanīs, 'on the side toward the Sequani.' 2. Of Time; from, after: ab hōrā tertā, 'from the third hour'; ā puerō, 'from boyhood'; ab cohortātiōne, 'after exhorting.' 3. In other relations; from, by, in, against: ā poenā līber, 'free from punishment'; missus ab Syrācūsīs, 'sent by the Syracusans'; ab equitātū firmus, 'strong in (lit., from) cavalry'; ab animō aeger, 'diseased in mind'; ab eīs dēfendere, 'to defend against (from) them'; esse ab aliquō, 'to be on one's side'; ā nōbīs, 'in our interest'; servus ā pedibus, 'a footman.'

Note.—Absque, rare in classical prose, is found chiefly in Plautus and Terence.

Cum, with, in most of its English meanings: cum patre habitāre, 'to live with one's father'; Caesar cum quīnque legionibus, 'Caesar with five legions'; consul cum summo imperio, 'the consul with supreme command'; servus cum tēlo, 'a slave with a weapon,' 'an armed slave'; cum prīmā tūce, 'with the early dawn,' 'at the early dawn'; consentīre cum aliquō, 'to agree with any one'; cum Caesare agere, 'to treat with Caesar'; cum aliquō dīmicāre, 'to contend with any one'; multīs cum lacrimīs, 'with many tears'; cum virtūte, 'virtuously'; cum eō ut, or cum eō quod, 'with this condition that,' 'on condition that.' See also 419, III.

DE, DOWN FROM, FROM, OF. 1. Of Place; DOWN FROM, FROM: de caeló, 'down from heaven'; de forō, 'from the forum'; de mājōribus audīre, 'to hear from one's elders.' 2. Of Time; FROM, OUT OF, DURING, IN, AT, AFTER: de prandiō, 'from breakfast'; de diē, 'by day,' 'in the course of the day'; de tertiā vigiliā, 'during the third watch'; de mediā nocte, 'at about midnight.' 3. In other relations; FROM, OF, FOR, ON, CONCERING, ACCORDING TO: de summō genere, 'of the highest rank'; factum de marmore sīgnum, 'a bust made of marble'; homō de plēbe, 'a man of plebeian rank,' 'a plebeian'; triumphus de Galliā, 'a triumph over (concerning) Gaul'; gravī de causā, 'for a grave reason'; de mōre vetustō, 'according to ancient custom'; de industriā, 'on purpose'; de integrō, 'anew.' See also 415, III., note 2.

E, ex, out of, from. 1. Of Place; out of, from, in, on: ex urbe, 'from the city,' out of the city'; ex equō pūgnāre, 'to fight on horseback'; ex vinculīs, 'in chains' (lit., out of or from chains); ex itinere, 'on the march.'
2. Of Time; from, directly after, since: ex eō tempore, 'from that time'; ex tempore dīcere, 'to speak extemporaneously'; diem ex diē, 'from day to day.' 3. In other relations; from, out of, of, according to, on account of, through: ex vulneribus perīre, 'to perish of (because of) wounds'; ūnus ē fīliis, 'one of the sons'; ex commūtātiōne, 'on account of the change'; et cōnsuētūdīne, 'according to custom'; ē vestīgiō, 'on the spot'; ex parte māgnā, 'in great part'; ex imprōvīsō, 'unexpectedly.'

Grack ἀπό. 2 Compare Greek ξύν, σύν, with. 3 Compare Greek ἐξ, out of.

Prae, BEFORE, IN COMPARISON WITH, IN CONSEQUENCE OF, BECAUSE OF: 1 prae manu esse, 'to be at hand'; prae manu habère, 'to have at hand'; prae sē ferre, 'to show, display, exhibit'; prae nobis beatus, 'happy in comparison with us'; non prae lacrimis 1 posse, 'not to be able because of tears.'

Pro, before; in behalf of, in defence of, for; instead of, as; in RETURN FOR, FOR; ACCORDING TO, IN PROPORTION TO: pro castris, 'before the camp'; pro libertate, 'in defence of liberty'; pro patria, 'for the country'; pro consule = proconsul, 'a proconsul' (one acting for a consul); pro certo habere, 'to regard as certain'; pro eo, quod, 'for the reason that,' 'because'; pro tua prudentia, 'in accordance with your prudence'; pro imperio, 'imperiously'; pro se quisque, 'each according to his ability.'

435. The Accusative of Ablative is used with—

sub, subter, super:

In Asiam profugit, he fled into Asia. Cic. Hannibal in Ĭtaliā fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. Nep. Sub montem, toward the mountain. Caes. Sub monte, at the foot of the mountain. Liv. Subter togam, under the toga. Liv. Subter testudine, under a tortoise or shed. Verg. Super Numidiam, beyond Numidia. Sall. Häc super re scribam, I shall write on this subject. Cic.

NOTE 1.-In and sub take the Accusative after verbs implying motion, the Ablative after those implying rest; see examples.

Note 2.—Subter and super generally take the Accusative; but super, when it means concerning, of, on (of a subject of discourse), takes the Ablative; see examples,

I. The following uses of in, sub, subter, and super deserve notice:

In, with the Accusative, Into, to, Toward, Till. 1. Of Place; Into, to, TOWARD, AGAINST, IN: ire in urbem, 'to go into the city'; in Persas, 'into the country of the Persians'; in aram, 'to the altar'; unum in locum convenire, 'to meet in one place' (380, with note). 2. Of Time; INTO, TO, FOR, TILL: in noctem, 'into the night'; in multam noctem, 'until late at night'; in diem, 'into the day,' also 'for the day'; in dies, 'from day to day,' 'daily'; invitare in posterum diem, 'to invite for the following day.' 3. In other relations; INTO, AGAINST, TOWARD, ON, FOR, AS, IN: divided in partes tres, 'divided into three parts'; in hostem, 'against the enemy'; in id certamen, 'for this contest'; in memoriam patris, 'in memory of his father'; in spem pācis, 'in the hope of peace'; in rem esse, 'to be useful,' 'to be to the purpose.'

In, with the Ablative, IN, ON, AT. 1. Of Place; IN, AT, WITHIN, AMONG, UPON: in urbe, 'in the city'; in Persis, 'among the Persians'; sapientissimus in septem, 'the wisest among or of the seven.' 2. Of Time; IN, AT, DURING, IN THE COURSE OF: in tali tempore, 'at such a time'; in tempore, 'in time.' 3. In other relations; IN, ON, UPON, IN THE CASE OF: esse in armis, 'to be in arms'; in summo timore, 'in the greatest fear'; in hoc homine, 'in the case of this man.'

Sub, with the Accusative, under, beneath, toward, up to, about, direct-

¹ This causal meaning is developed from the local. The noun in the Ablative is thought of as an obstacle or hindrance: non prae lacrimis posse, 'not to be able before, in the presence of, because of such a hindrance as tears.'

LY AFTER: sub jugum mittere, 'to send under the yoke'; sub nostram aciem, 'toward our line'; sub astra, 'up to the stars'; sub vesperum, 'toward evening'; sub eās lītterās, 'directly after that letter'; sub imperium redāctus, 'brought under one's sway.'

Sub, with the Ablative, UNDER, AT, AT THE FOOT OF, IN, ABOUT: sub terrā, 'under the earth'; sub pellibus, 'in tents'; 'sub brūmā, 'at the time of the winter solstice'; sub lūce, 'at dawn'; sub hōc verbō, 'under this word'; sub iūdice, 'in the hands of the judge' (i. e., not yet decided).

Note.—Subter, a strengthened form 2 of sub, meaning under, generally takes the Accusative, though it admits the Ablative in poetry: subter mare, 'under the sea'; subter togam, 'under the toga'; subter dēnsā testūdine, 'under a compact testudo.'

Super, with the Accusative, OVER, UPON, ABOVE: sedens super arma, 'sitting upon the arms'; super Numidiam, 'beyond Numidia'; super sexāgintā mīlia, 'upward of sixty thousand'; super nātūram, 'supernatural'; super omnia, 'above all.'

Super, with the Ablative, upon, AT, during, concerning, of, on: strātō super ostrō, 'upon purple couches' (lit., upon the spread purple); nocte super mediā, 'at midnight'; hāc super rē scrībere, 'to write upon this subject'; multa super Priamō rogitāns, 'asking many questions about Priam.'

NOTE.—The Ablative is rare with super, except when it means concerning, about, on (of the subject of discourse). It is then the regular construction.

436. Prepositions were originally adverbs (307, note 1), and many of the words generally classed as prepositions are often used as adverbs ³ in classical authors:

Ad milibus quattuor, about four thousand. Caes. Omnia contrā circāque, all things opposite and around. Liv. Prope ā Siciliā, not far from Sicily. Cic. Juxtā positus, placed near by. Nep. Suprā, infrā esse, to be above, below. Cic. Nec citrā nec ūltrā, neither on this side nor on that side. Ov.

- 437. Conversely, several words generally classed as adverbs are sometimes used as prepositions. Such are—
- 1. With the Accusative, propius, prāximē, vrīdiē, postrīdiē, usque, dēsuver:

Propius periculum, nearer to danger. Liv. Prīdiē Īdūs, the day before the Ides. Cic. Usque pedēs, even to the feet. Curt.

2. With the Ablative, intus, palam, procul, simul (poetic):

Tali intus templo, within such a temple. Verg. Palam populo, in the presence of the people. Liv. Procul castris, at a distance from the camp. Tac. Simul his, with these. Hor.

3. With the Accusative or Ablative, clam, insuper:

Clam patrem, without the father's knowledge. Plaut. Clam vobis, without your knowledge. Caes.

¹ That is, in camp (lit., under skins).

² Formed from sub, like in-ter from in; see 433, I., inter, foot-note.

³ They are, in fact, sometimes adverbs and sometimes prepositions.

CHAPTER III.

SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

RULE XXXIV .- Agreement of Adjectives.

438. An adjective agrees with its noun in GENDER, NUMBER, and CASE:

Fortūna caeca est, fortune is blind. Cic. Vērae amīcitiae, true friendships. Cic. Magister optimus, the best teacher. Cic. Quā in rē prīvātās injūriās ultus est, in which thing he avenged private wrongs. Caes. Sōl oriēns diem cōnficit, the sun rising makes the day. Cic.

1. Adjective Pronouns and Participles are Adjectives in construction, and accordingly conform to this rule, as in quā in rē, sōl oriēns.

2. When an adjective unites with the verb (generally sum) to form the predicate, as in caeca est, 'is blind,' it is called a Predicate Adjective (360, note 1); but when it simply qualifies a noun, as in verae amicitiae, 'true friendships,' it is called an Attributive Adjective.

3. Agreement with Clause, etc.—An adjective may agree with any word or words used substantively, as a pronoun, clause, infinitive, etc.:

Quis clărior, who is more illustrious? Cic. Certum est līberos amārī, it is certain that children are loved. Quint. See 42, note.

Note.—An adjective agreeing with a clause is sometimes plural, as in Greek:

Ut Aenēās jactētur nota tibi, how Aeneas is tossed about is known to you. Verg.

4. A NEUTER ADJECTIVE used as a *substantive* sometimes supplies the place of a Predicate Adjective:

Mors est extremum, death is the last thing. Cic. Trīste lupus stabulīs, a wolf is a sad thing for the flocks. Verg.

5. A NEUTER ADJECTIVE WITH A GENITIVE is often used instead of an adjective with its noun, especially in the Nominative and Accusative:

Multum operae, much service.² Cic. Id temporis, that time.² Cic. Vāna rērum, vain things.² Hor. Opāca viārum, dark streets. Verg. Strāta viārum, paved streets. Verg. See also 397, 3, note 4.

6. Synesis.3—Sometimes the adjective or participle conforms to the *real* meaning of its noun, without regard to grammatical gender or number:

Pars certare parati, a part (some), prepared to contend. Verg. Insperanti a nobis, to us (me) not expecting it. Catul. Demosthenes cum ceteris crant expulsi, Demosthenes with the others had been banished. Nep.

 $^{^{1}}$ As in Greek: οὐκ ἀγαθὸν πολυκοιρανίη, the rule of the many is not a good thing.

² Multum operae = multa opera or multam operam; id temporis = id tempus; vāna rērum = vānae rēs or vānās rēs.

³ A construction according to sense; see 636, IV., 4.

⁴ Parātī is plural, to conform to the meaning of pars, 'part,' 'some,' plural in sense;

Note.—In the Ablative Absolute (431) absente and praesente occur in early Latin with a plural noun or pronoun: 1

Praesente 1 bus (eis), 2 in their presence (lit., they being present). Plaut. Praesente testibus, in the presence of witnesses. Plaut.

7. AGREEMENT WITH ONE NOUN FOR ANOTHER.—When a noun governs another in the Genitive, an adjective belonging in sense to one of the two nouns, sometimes agrees with the other:

Mājōra (for mājōrum) rērum initia, the beginnings of greater things. Liv. Cursus jūstī (jūstus) amnis, the regular course of the river. Liv.

Norm 1.—In the passive forms of verbs the participle sometimes agrees with a predicate noun or with an appositive; see 462.

NOTE 2.—An adjective or participle predicated of an Accusative is sometimes attracted into the Nominative to agree with the subject:

Ostendit se dextra (for dextram), she shows herself favorable. Verg.

439. An adjective or participle, belonging to Two or MORE NOUNS, may agree with them all *conjointly*, or may agree with one and be understood with the others:

Castor et Pollux vīsī sunt, Castor and Pollux were seen. Cic. Dubitāre vīsus est Sulpicius et Cotta, Sulpicius and Cotta seemed to doubt. Cic. Temeritās īgnōrātiŏque vitiōsa est, rashness and ignorance are bad. Cic.

1. The Attributive Adjective generally agrees with the nearest noun:

Agrī omnes et maria, all lands and seas. Cic. Cuncta maria terraeque, all seas and lands. Sall.

2. A plural adjective or participle, agreeing with two or more nouns of different genders, is generally *masculine* when the nouns denote persons or sentient beings, and in other cases generally *neuter*:

Pater et mater mortui sunt, father and mother are dead. Ter. Honores, victoriae fortuita sunt, honors and victories are accidental things. Cic. Labor voluptasque inter se sunt juncta, labor and pleasure are joined together. Liv.

Note.—When nouns denoting sentient beings are combined with those denoting things, the plural adjective or participle in agreement with them sometimes takes the gender of the former and sometimes of the latter, and sometimes is neuter irrespective of the gender of the nouns:

Rēx rēgiaque clāssis profectī sunt, the king and the royal fleet set out. Liv. Rēgem rēgnumque sua futūra sciunt, they know that the king and the kingdom will be theirs. Liv. Inimīca 3 inter sē sunt lībera cīvitās et rēx, a free state and a king are hostile to each other. Liv.

3. With nouns denoting inanimate objects, the adjective or participle is often neuter, irrespective of the gender of the nouns:

Labor et dolor sunt finitima, labor and pain are kindred (things). Cic.

inspēranti is singular, because nödis is here applied to one person, the speaker (446, note 2); expulsi is plural, because Dēmosthenēs cum cēteris means Demosthenes and the others.

¹ In this construction absente and praesente appear to be treated as adverbs.

² See p. 73, foot-note 2.

³ Perhaps best explained substantively-things hostile; see 438, 4.

Nox atque praeda hostīs remorāta sunt, night and plunder detained the enemy. Sall.

4. Two or more adjectives in the singular may belong to a plural noun:

Prīma et vicēsima legionēs, the first and the twentieth legions. Tac.

Note.—In the same way two or more $praenomina^1$ in the singular may be combined with a family name in the plural:

Gnaeus et Pūblius Scīpionēs, Gnaeus and Publius Scipio. Cic. Pūblius et Servius Sullae, Publius and Servius Sulla. Sall.

Use of Adjectives.

440. The adjective in Latin corresponds in its general use to the adjective in English.

1. In Latin, as in English, an adjective may qualify the complex idea formed by a noun and another adjective:

Duae potentissimae gentēs, two very powerful races. Liv. Māgnum aes aliēnum, a large debt. Cic. Nāvēs longās trīgintā veterēs, thirty old vessels of war. Liv.²

Note.—In general no connective is used when adjectives are combined, as in *duae* potentissimae gentës, etc.; but if the first adjective is multī or plūrimī, the connective is usually inserted:

Multae et māgnae cogitātionēs, many great thoughts. Cic. Multa et praeclāra facinora, many illustrious deeds. Sall.

2. Prolepsis or Anticipation.—An adjective is sometimes applied to a noun to denote the *result* of the action expressed by the verb:

Submersas 3 obrue puppes, overwhelm and sink the ships (lit., overwhelm the sunken ships). Verg. Scuta latentia 2 condunt, they conceal their hidden shields. Verg.

Note 1.—Certain adjectives often designate a particular part of an object: prima now, the first part of the night; $medi\bar{u}$ aestāte, in the middle of summer; summus mons, the top (highest part) of the mountain.

Note 2.—The adjectives thus used are prīmus, medius, ültimus, extrēmus, postrēmus, intimus, summus, īnfimus, īmus, suprēmus, rēliquus, cētera, etc.

NOTE 3.—In the poets, in Livy, and in late prose writers, the neuter of these adjectives with a Genitive sometimes occurs:

Libyae extrēma, the frontiers of Libya. Verg. Ad ültimum inopiae (for ad ültimam inopiam), to extreme destitution. Liv.

NOTE 4.—Adjectives are often combined with REs: rēs adversae, adversity; rēs secundae, prosperity; rēs novae, revolution; rēs pūblica, republic.

¹ For Roman names, see 649.

² Here duae qualifies not simply gentēs, but potentissimae gentēs; māgnum qualifies aes altēnum, 'debt' (lit., money belonging to another); veterēs qualifies nāvēs longās, 'vessels of war' (lit., 'long vessels'), while trēgintā qualifies the still more complex expression, nāvēs longās veterēs.

³ Observe that submersus gives the result of the action denoted by obrue, and is not applicable to puppes until that action is performed; latentia likewise gives the result of condunt.

441. Adjectives and participles are often used substantively:1

Bonī, the good; mortālēs, mortals; dōctī, the learned; sapientēs, the wise; multī, many persons; multa, many things; praefectus, a prefect; nātūs, a son.

- 1. In the plural, masculine adjectives and participles often designate PERSONS, and neuter adjectives THINGS: fortes, the brave; divites, the rich; pauperes, the poor; multi, many; pauci, few; omnes, all; mei, my friends; discentes, learners; spectantes, spectators; futura, future events; ütilia, useful things; mea, nostra, my things, our things; omnia, all things; haee, illa, these things, those things.
- 2. In the singular, adjectives and participles are occasionally used substantively, especially in the Genitive, or in the Accusative or Ablative with a preposition: dōctus, a learned man; adulēscēns, a young man; vērum, a true thing, the truth; falsum, a falsehood; nihil sincērī, nothing of sincerity, nothing sincere; nihil humānī, nothing human; nihil rēliquī, nothing left; aliquid novī, something new; à prīmō, from the beginning; ad extrēmum, to the end; ad summum, to the highest point; dē integrō, afresh; dē improvīsō, unexpectedly; ex aequō, in like manner; in praesentī, at present; in futūrum, for the future; prō certō, as certain.

Note 1.—For the neuter participle with opus and ūsus, see 414, IV., note 3.

- Note 2.—For the use of adjectives instead of nouns in the Genitive, see 395, note 2.

 3. A few substantives are sometimes used as adjectives, especially verbal nouns in tor and trīw: 5 vīctor exercitus, a victorious army; homō gladator, a gladiator, a gladiatorial man; vīctrīcēs Athēnae, victorious (conquering) Athens; populus lātē rēv, a
- 442. Equivalent to a Clause.—Adjectives, like nouns in apposition, are sometimes equivalent to clauses:

Nemő saltat söbrius, no one dances when he is sober, or when sober. Cic. Hortensium vīvum amāvī, I loved Hortensius, while he was alive. Cic. Homő nünquam söbrius, a man who is never sober. Cic.

Note.—Prior, prīmus, ūltimus, postrēmus, are often best rendered by a relative clause: Prīmus mōrem solvit, he was the first who broke the custom.⁷ Liv.

443. Adjectives and Adverbs.—Adjectives are sometimes used where our idiom employs adverbs:

Socrates venenum laetus hausit, Socrates cheerfully drank the poison. Sen. Senātus frequens convenit, the senate assembled in great numbers. Cic. Roscius erat Romae frequens, Roscius was frequently at Rome. Cic.

people of extensive sway.6

¹ That is, words which were originally adjectives or participles sometimes become *substantives*; indeed, many substantives were originally adjectives; see 323, foot-note; 324, foot-note.

² Praefectus, from praeficiö (lit., one appointed over); nātus, from nāscor (lit., one born).

³ See 397, 1. For nihil reliqui facere, see 401, note 4.

⁴ Numerous adverbial expressions are thus formed by combining the neuter of adjectives with prepositions.

⁵ That is, these words are generally substantives, but sometimes adjectives.

⁶ See Verg., Aen., I., 21,

⁷ With the adverb primum the thought would be, he first broke the custom (i. e., before doing anything else). Compare the corresponding distinction between the Greek adjective πρώτος and the adverb πρώτον.

Note 1.—The adjectives chiefly thus used are—(1) Those expressive of joy, knowledge, and their opposites: laetus, libēns, invītus, trīstis, sciēns, insciēns, prūdēns, imprūdēns, etc. (2) Nūllus, sōlus, tōtus, ūnus; prior, prīmus, propior, prōximus, etc.

Note 2.—In the *poets* a few adjectives of *time* and *place* are used in the same manner: Domesticus otion, *I idle about home*. Hor. Vespertinus pete tectum, at evening

Domesticus ötior, I idle about home. Hor. Vespertīnus pete tectum, at evening seek your abode. Hor.

Note 3.—In rare instances adverbs seem to supply the place of adjectives:

Omnia rēctē sunt, all things are right. Cic. Non īgnārī sumus ante malorum, we are not ignorant of past misfortunes. Verg. Nunc hominum mores, the character of men of the present day. Plaut.

Note 4.—Numeral adverbs often occur with titles of office: 2

Flaminius, consul iterum, Flaminius, when consul for the second time. Cic.

444. A COMPARISON between two objects requires the comparative degree; between more than two, the superlative:

Prior horum, the former of these (two). Nep. Gallorum fortissimi, the bravest of the Gauls. Caes.

1. The comparative sometimes has the force of too, unusually, somewhat, and the superlative, the force of very: dōctior, too learned, or somewhat learned; dōctissimus, very learned.

Note.—Certain superlatives are common as titles of honor: clārissimus, nōbilissimus, and summus—especially applicable to men of consular or senatorial rank; fortissimus, honestissimus, illūstrissimus, and splendidissimus—especially applicable to those of the equestrian order.

2. Comparative after Quam.—When an object is said to possess one quality in a higher degree than another, the two adjectives thus used either may be connected by *magis quam³* or may both be put in the comparative:⁴

Disertus magis quam sapiëns, more fluent than wise. Cic. Praeclārum magis quam difficile, more noble than difficult, or noble rather than difficult. Cic. Ditiöres quam fortiöres, more wealthy than brave. Liv. Clarior quam grātior, more illustrious than pleasing. Liv.

Note 1.—In a similar manner two adverbs may be connected by $magis\ quam,$ or may both be put in the comparative:

Magis audācter quam parātē, with more audacity than preparation. Cic. Bellum fortius quam fēlicius gerere, to wage war with more valor than success. Liv.

NOTE 2.—The form with magis, both in adjectives and in adverbs, may sometimes be best rendered rather than:

Ars magis magna quam difficilis, an art extensive rather than difficult. Cic. See also the second example under 2, above.

Note 3.—In the later Latin the *positive* sometimes follows *quam*, even when the regular *comparative* precedes, and sometimes *two positives* are used:

Vehementius quam cautē appetere, to seek more eagerly than cautiously. Tac. Clārīs quam vetustīs, illustrious rather than ancient. Tac.

Note 4.—For the use of comparatives before quam pro, see 417, 1, note 5.

Like the Greek τῶν πρίν κακῶν and τῶν νῦν ἀνθρώπων.

² The want of a present participle in the verb sum brings these adverbs into close connection with nouns.

³ As in English, more fluent than wise. This is the usual method in Cicero.

As in Greek, πλείονες η βελτίονες, more numerous than good. This method, common in Livy, is rare in the earlier writers.

3. STRENGTHENING WORDS.—Comparatives and superlatives are often strengthened by a preposition with its case, as by ante, prae, praeter, suprā (417, 1, note 3). Comparatives are also often strengthened by etiam, even, still; multī, much; and superlatives by longē, multī, by far, much; rel, even; ūnus, ūnus omnium, alone, alone of all, without exception, far, by far; quam, quam or quantus with the verb possum, as possible; tam quam quī, ut quī, as possible (lit., as he who):

Mājōrūs etiam varietātūs, even greater varieties. Cic. Multō etiam gravius queritur, he complains even much more bitterly. Caes. Multō māxima pars, by far the largest part. Cic. Quam saepissimū, as often as possible. Cic. Ūnus omnium difficitissimus, without exception the most learned of men. Cic. Rūs ūna omnium difficillima, a thing by far the most difficult of all. Cic. Quam māximae cōpiae, forces as large as possible. Sall. Quantam māximam potest vastitātem ostendit, he exhibits the greatest possible desolation (lit., as great as the greatest he can). Liv.

CHAPTER IV.

SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

RULE XXXV.-Agreement of Pronouns.

445. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in GENDER, NUMBER, and PERSON:

Animal quod sanguinem habet, an animal which has blood. Cic. Ego, $qu\bar{\imath}$ to confirmo, I who encourage you. Cic. Vis est in virtuitibus, eas excita, there is strength in virtues, arouse them. Cic.

Note.—The antecedent is the word or words to which the pronoun refers, and whose place it supplies. Thus, in the examples under the rule, animal is the antecedent of quod; ego, of quī; and virtūtibus, of eās.

- 1. This rule applies to all pronouns when used as *nouns*. Pronouns used as *adjectives* conform to the rule for adjectives; see **438**.
- 2. When the antecedent is a demonstrative in agreement with a personal pronoun, the relative agrees with the latter:

Tũ es is quĩ mẽ ôrnastī, you are the one who commended me. Cic.

3. When a relative, or other pronoun, refers to two or more antecedents, it generally agrees with them conjointly, but it sometimes agrees with the nearest:

Pietās, virtūs, fidēs, quārum¹ Rōmae templa sunt, piety, virtue, and faith, whose temples are at Rome. Cic. Peccātum āc culpa, quae,¹ error and fault, which. Cic.

¹ Quarum agrees with pictas, virtus, and fides conjointly, and is accordingly in the plural; but quae agrees simply with culpa.

NOTE 1.—With antecedents of different genders, the pronoun conforms in gender to the rule for adjectives (439, 2 and 3):

Puerī mulierēsque quī, loys and women who. Caes. Inconstantia et temeritās, quae l dīgna non sunt deō, inconstancy and rashness which are not worthy of a god. Cie.

NOTE 2.—With antecedents of *different persons*, the pronoun prefers the first person to the second, and the second to the third, conforming to the rule for verbs (463, 1):

Ego ac tu inter nos 2 loquimur, you and I converse together. Tac. Et tu et collègae tui, qui 2 sperastis, both you and your colleagues, who hoped. Cic.

4. By Attraction, a pronoun sometimes agrees with a Predicate Noun or an Appositive instead of the antecedent:

Animal quem (for quod) vocamus hominem, the animal which we call man. Cic. Thebae, quod (quae) caput est, Thebes, which is the capital. Liv. Ea (id) erat confessio, that (i. e., the action referred to) was a confession. Liv. Flumen Rhenus, qui, the river Rhine, which. Caes.

5. By SYNESIS, the pronoun is sometimes construed according to the real meaning of the antecedent, without regard to grammatical form; and sometimes it refers to the class of objects to which the antecedent belongs:

Quia fessum mīlitem habēbat, hīs quiētem dedit, as he had an exhausted soldiery, he gave them (these) a rest. Liv. Equitatus, quī vidērunt, the cavalry who saw. Caes. Dē aliā rē, quod ad mē attinet, in regard to another thing which pertains to me. Plaut. Eārum rērum utrumque, each of these things. Cic. Dēmocritum omittāmus; apud istōs; let us omit Democritus; with such (i. e., as he). Cic.

6. Antegenery Omittee.—The antecedent of the relative is often omitted when it is indefinite, is a demonstrative pronoun, or is implied in a possessive pronoun, or in an adjective:

Sunt qui censeant, there are some who think. Cic. Terra reddit quod accepit, the earth returns what it has received. Cic. Vestra, qui cum integritate vixistis, hoc interest, this interests you who have lived with integrity. Cic-Servilis tumultus quos, the revolt of the slaves whom. Caes.

7. CLAUSE AS ANTECEDENT.—When the antecedent is a sentence or clause, the pronoun, unless attracted (445, 4), is in the Neuter Singular, but the relative generally adds *id* as an appositive to such antecedent:

Nos, id quod debet, patria delectat, our country delights us, as it ought (lit., that which it owes). Cic. Regem, quod nunquam antea acciderat, necaverunt, they put their king to death, which had never before happened. Cic.

8. Relative Attracted.—The relative is sometimes attracted into the case of the antecedent, and sometimes agrees with the antecedent repeated:

Judice quo (for quem) nosti, the judge whom you know. Hor. Dies instat,

¹ Qui agrees with pueri and mulieres conjointly, and is in the masculine, according to 439, 2; but quae is in the neuter, according to 439, 3.

² Nos, referring to ego ac tā, is in the first person; while quī, referring to tā et colligae, is in the second person, as is shown by the verb spērāstis.

³ In these examples, the pronouns *quem*, *quod*, and *ea* are *attracted*, to agree with their predicate nouns, *hominem*, *caput*, and *cōnfessiŏ*; but *quī* agrees with the appositive, *Rhēnus*.

quō diē, the day is at hand, on which day. Caes. Cūmac, quam urbem tenēbant, Cumae, which city they held. Liv.

9. Antecedent Attracted.—In poetry, rarely in prose, the antecedent is sometimes attracted into the case of the relative; and sometimes incorporated

in the relative clause with the relative in agreement with it:

Urbem, quam statuō, vestra est, the city which I am building is yours. Verg.¹ Malārum, quās amor cūrās habet, oblivisci (for malārum cūrārum quās), to forget the wretched cares which love has. Hor.¹ Quōs vōs implorāre dēbētis, ut, quam urbem pulcherrimam esse voluērunt, hanc² dēfendant, these (lit., whom) you ought to implore to defend this city, which they wished to be most beautiful. Cic.

Use of Pronouns.

446. Personal Pronouns.—The Nominative of Personal Pronouns is used only for emphasis or contrast: 3

Sīgnificāmus quid sentiāmus, we show what we think. Cic. Ego rēgēs ējēcī, võs tyrannös introducitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

Note 1 .- With quidem the pronoun is usually expressed, but not with equidem:

Facis amīcē tū quidem, you act indeed in a friendly manner. Cic. Non dubitābam equidem, $I\ did\ not\ doubt\ indeed.$ Cic.

Note 2.—A writer sometimes speaks of himself in the plural, using nos for ego, nos-

ter for meus, and the plural verb for the singular:

Vidēs nōs (for mē) multa cōnārī, you see that we (for I) are attempting many things. Cic. Sermō explicābit nostram (for meam) sententiam, the conversation will unfold our (μγ) opinion. Cic. Diximus (for dixī) multa, I have said many things. Cic. 4

Note 3.—Nostr $\bar{\imath}$ and $restr\bar{\imath}$ are generally used in an objective sense; nostr $\bar{\imath}m$ and $vestr\bar{\imath}m$ in a partitive sense:

Habetis ducem memorem vestrī, you have a leader mindful of your interests (of you). Cic. Minus habed vīrium quam vestrūm utervīs, I have less strength than either of you. Cic. Quis nostrūm, who of us? Cic.

Note 4.—With ab, ad, or apud, a personal pronoun may designate the residence or

abode of a person:

Ā nōbīs ĕgreditur, he is coming from our house. Ter. Vēnī ad mē, I came to my house. Cic. Eāmus ad mē, let us go to my house. Ter. Apud tē est, he is at your house. Cic. Rūrī apud sē est, he is at his residence in the country. Cic. See also 433, I., ad, apud, etc.

447. Possessive Pronouns, when not emphatic, are seldom expressed, if they can be supplied from the context:

Manus lavă, wash your hands. Cic. Mihi mea vita căra est, my life is dear to me. Plaut.

² Quam urbem, hanc = hanc urbem, quam.

¹ For other examples, see Verg., Aen., V., 28-30; Hor., Sat., I., 10, 16.

³ The learner will remember that a pronominal subject is actually contained in the ending of the verb; see 368, 2, foot-note.

⁴ For other examples, see Hor., Sat., I., 9, 7, and Car., I., 82.

⁵ In this example mea is expressed for emphasis.

Note 1.—Possessive Pronouns sometimes mean favorable, propitious, as aliënus often means unfavorable:

Vädimus haud nümine noströ, we advance under a divinity not propitious. Verg. Tempore tuō pūgnāstī, you fought at a favorable time. Liv. Ferunt sua flāmina clāssem, favorable winds bear the fleet. Verg. Alienō locō proelium committunt, they engage in battle in an unfavorable place. Caes.

Note 2.—For the Possessive Pronoun in combination with a Genitive, see 398, 3.

448. Reflexive Use of Pronouns.— $Su\bar{\imath}$ and suus have a reflexive sense; 1 sometimes also the other personal and possessive pronouns:

Miles sē ipsum interfēcit, the soldier killed himself. Tac. Tēlō sē dēfendit, he defends himself with a weapon. Cic. Suā vī movētur, he is moved by his own power. Cic. Mē cōnsōlor, I console myself. Cic. Vōs vestra tēcta dēfendite, defend your houses. Cic.

Note.—Inter nos, inter vos, inter se, have a reciprocal force, each other, one another, together; but instead of inter se, the noun may be repeated in an oblique case:

Colloquimur inter nos, we converse together. Cic. Amant inter se, they love one another. Cic. Homines hominibus utiles sunt, men are useful to men (i. e., to each other). Cic.

449. Suī and suus generally refer to the Subject of the clause in which they stand:

Sē dīligit, he loves himself. Cic. Jūstitia propter sēsē colenda est, justice should be cultivated for its own sake. Cic. Annulum suum dedit, he gave his ring. Nep. Per sē sibǐ quisque cārus est, every one is in his very nature (through or in himself) dear to himself. Cic.

1. In Subordinate Clauses expressing the sentiment of the principal subject, suī and suus generally refer to that subject:

Sentit animus sẽ vĩ suả movērī, the mind perceives that it is moved by its own power. Cic. Ā mē petīvit ut sēcum essem, he asked (from) me to be with him (that I would be). Cic. Pervestīgat quid suī cīvēs cōgitent, he tries to ascertain what his fellow-citizens think. Cic.

1) As $su\bar{\imath}$ and suus thus refer to subjects, the demonstratives, is, ille, etc., generally refer either to other words, or to subjects which do not admit $su\bar{\imath}$ and suus:

Deum āgnōscis ex ējus operibus, you recognize a god by (from) his works. Cic. Obligat cīvitātem nihil eos mūtātūrōs, he binds the state not to change anything (that they will). Just.

2) In some subordinate clauses the writer may at pleasure use either the reflexive or the demonstrative, according as he wishes to present the thought as that of the principal subject, or as his own:

Persuadent Tulingis uti cum iis 2 proficiscantur, they persuade the Tulingi to depart with them. Caes.

3) Sometimes reflexives and demonstratives are used without any apparent distinction:

Suī, of himself; sibī, for himself; sē, himself.

² Here cum its is the proper language for the writer without reference to the sentiment of the principal subject; sēcum, which would be equally proper, would present the thought as the sentiment of that subject.

Caesar Fabium cum legione suā ¹ remittit, Caesar sends back Fabius and (with) his legion. Caes. Omitto Isocratem discipulosque ējus, ¹ I omit Isocrates and his disciples. Cic.

2. Suus, in the sense of His own, Firming, etc., may refer to subject or object:

Jüstitia suum cuique tribuit, justice gives to every man his due (his own). Cic.

- 3. SYNESIS.—When the subject of the verb is not the real agent of the action, suī and suus refer to the agent:
- $\bar{\mathbf{A}}$ Caesare invîtor sibǐ ut sim lēgātus, I am invited by Caesar (real agent) to be his lieutenant. Cic.
- 4. THE PLURAL OF SUUS, meaning HIS FRIENDS, THEIR FRIENDS, THEIR POSSESSIONS, etc., is used with great freedom, often referring to oblique cases:

Fuit hoc luctuosum suis, this was afflicting to his friends.2 Cic.

5. Sui and Suus sometimes refer to an omitted subject:

Deforme est de se praedicare, to boast of one's self is disgusting. Cic.

6. Two Reflexives.—Sometimes a clause has one reflexive referring to the principal subject, and another referring to the subordinate subject:

Respondit nëminem sëcum sine sua pernicië contendisse, he replied that no one had contended with him without (his) destruction. Caes.

450. Demonstrative Pronouns.—Hic, iste, ille, are often called respectively demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons, as hic designates that which is near the speaker; iste, that which is near the person addressed; and ille, that which is remote from both:

Custos hūjus urbis, the guardian of this city (i. e., of our city). Cic. Mūtā istam mentem, change that purpose of yours. Cic. Ista quae sunt ā tē dicta, those things which were spoken by you. Cic. Sī illos, quos vidēre non possumus, neglegis, if you disregard those (far away, yonder) whom we can not see. Cic.

1. Hie designates an object conceived as near, and ille as remote, whether in space, time, or thought:

Non antiquo illo more, sed hoc nostro fuit cruditus, he was educated, not in that ancient, but in this our modern way. Cic. Hoc illud fuit, was it (that) this? Verg.

Note.—The idea of contempt often implied in clauses with iste is not strictly contained in the pronoun itself, but derived from the context; 4

Animi est ista mollities, non virtus, that is an effeminate spirit, not valor. Caes.

² Here suis refers to an oblique case in the preceding sentence.

¹ Observe that the *reflexive* is used in the first example, and the *demonstrative* in the second, though the cases are entirely alike.

³ Here $s\bar{c}$ refers to the subject of respondit, and $su\bar{a}$ to $n\bar{e}minem$, the subject of the subordinate clause.

⁴ The idea of *contempt* is readily explained by the fact that *iste* is often applied to the views of an opponent, to a defendant before a court of justice, and the like.

2. Former and Latter.—In reference to two objects previously mentioned, (1) hie generally follows ille and refers to the latter object, while ille refers to the former; but (2) hie may precede and may refer to the former, and ille refer to the latter:

Inimīcī, amīcī; illī, hī, enemies, friends; the former, the latter. Cic. Certa pāx, spērāta vīctōria; haec ($p\bar{a}x$) in tuā, illa in deōrum potestāte est, sure peace, hoped-for victory; the former is in your power, the latter in the power of the gods. Liv.

Note.— $H\bar{i}o$ refers to the *former* object, when that object is conceived of as *nearer* in thought, either because of its importance, or because of its close connection with the subject under discussion.¹

3. Hic and ille are often used of what immediately follows in discourse:

His verbis epistulam misit, he sent a letter in these words (i. e., in the following words). Nep. Illud intellegŏ, omnium ōra in mō conversa esse, this I understand, that the eyes of all are turned upon me. Sall.

4. Ille is often used of what is WELL KNOWN, FAMOUS:

Mēdēa illa, that well-known Medea. Cic. Ego, ille ferox, tacuī, I, that haughty one, was silent. Ovid.

Note 1.— $H\bar{t}c$ is sometimes equivalent to meus or noster, rarely to ego, and $h\bar{t}c$ hom \bar{c} to ego:

Suprā hanc memoriam, before our time (lit., before this memory). Cic. Hīs meīs lītterīs, with this letter of mine (from me). Cic. Hīc homŏst omnium hominum, ctc., of all men I am, etc. (lit., this man is). Plaut.

Note 2.—Hic, ille, and is are sometimes redundant, especially with quidem:

Scīpiŏ non multum ille dicēbat, Scipio did not indeed say much. Cic. Graecī volunt illī quidem, the Greeks indeed desire it. Cic. Ista tranquillitās ea ipsa est beāta vīta, that tranquillity is itself a happy life. Cic.

Note 3.—A demonstrative or relative is sometimes equivalent to a Genitive, or to a preposition with its case: $\hbar ic$ amor = amor $\hbar ijus$ r it, 'the love of this'; $\hbar aec$ c ira = c ira d it $\hbar ic$, 'care concerning this.'

NOTE 4.—Adverbs derived from demonstrative pronouns share the distinctive meanings of the pronouns themselves:

Hic plus mali est, quam illic boni, there is more of evil here, than of good there. Ter. See also 304; 305.

451. Is and *idem* refer to preceding nouns, or are the antecedents of relatives:

Dionysius aufügit, is est in provincia, Dionysius has fled, he is in the province. Cic. Is qui satis habet, he who has enough. Cic. Eadem audire malunt, they prefer to hear the same things. Liv.

1. The pronoun is, the weakest of the demonstratives, is often understood, especially before a relative or a Genitive:

Flübat pater de filli morte, de patris fillus, the father wept over the death of the son, the son over (that) of the father. Cic. See also 445, 6.

¹ Thus, in the last example, have refers to certa pāx as the more prominent object in the mind of the speaker, as he is setting forth the advantages of a sure peace over a hoped-for victory.

² For other examples, see Verg., Aen., I., 3; III., 490; and XI., 809. For the use of personal pronouns with *quidem*, see 446, note 1.

2. Is, with a conjunction, is often used for emphasis, like the English, and that too, and that indeed:

Ünam rem explicābō, eamque māximam, one thing I will explain, and that too a most important one. Cic. Audīre Cratippum, idque Athēnīs, to hear Cratippus, and that too at Athens. 1 Cic.

8. Idem is sometimes best rendered also, at the same time, at once, both, yet:

Nihil ütile, quod non idem honestum, nothing useful, which is not also honorable. Cic. Cum dicat, negat idem, though he asserts, he yet denies (the same denies). Cic. Rex Anius, rex idem hominum Phoebique sacerdos, King Anius, both king of men and priest of Apollo. Verg.

4. Is-qui means he-who, such-as, such-that:

If sumus, qui esse debēmus, we are such as we ought to be. Cic. Ea est gens quae nesciat, the race is such that it knows not. Liv.

5. Idem—qui means the same—who, the same—as; idem—āc (atque, et, que), idem—ut, idem—cum with the Ablative, the same—as:

Eidem mores, qui, the same manners which or as. Cic. Est idem ac fuit, he is the same as he was. Ter. Eodem mocum patre genitus, the son of the same father as I (with me). Tac.

6. For the distinction between is and sul in subordinate clauses, see 449, 1, 2).

452. Ipse adds emphasis, generally rendered self:

Ipse Pater fulmina molītur, the Father himself (Jupiter) hurls the thunderbolts. Verg. Ipse ² dixit, he himself said it. Cic. Ipse Caesar, Caesar himself. Cic. Fac ut tē ipsum custēdiās, see that you guard yourself. Cic.

1. Ipse belongs to the emphatic word, whether subject or object, but with a preference for the subject:

Mē ipse consolor, I myself (not another) console myself. Cic. Ipse sē quisque diligit, every one (himself) loves himself. Cic. Sē ipsum interfecit, he killed himself. Tac. Note.—Ipse is sometimes accompanied by sēcum, 'with himself,' 'alone,' or by per

se, 'by himself,' 'unaided,' 'in and of himself,' etc.:

Aliud genitor sēcum ipse volūtat, the father (Jupiter) himself alone ponders another plan. Verg. Quod est rēctum ipsumque per sē laudābile, which is right, and in and of itself praiseworthy. Cic.

Ipse is often best rendered by very:

- Ipse ille Gorgias, that very Gorgias. Cic.

3. With numerals, ipse means just so many, just; so also in nune ipsum, 'just at this time'; tum ipsum, 'just at that time':

Trīgintā diēs ipsī, just thirty days. Cic. Nunc ipsum sine tē esse non possum, just at this time I cannot be without you. Cic.

4. Ipse in the Genitive with possessives has the force of own, one's own:

Nostra ipsorum amīcitia, our own friendship. Cic. See 398, 3.

5. Ipse in a subordinate clause sometimes refers to the principal subject, like an emphatic sut or suus:

Lēgātōs mīsit quī ipsī vītam peterent, he sent messengers to ask life for himself. Sall.

6. Et ipse and ipse quoque may often be rendered also, likewise, even he:3

Alius Achilles natus et ipse dea, another Achilles likewise (lit., himself also) born of a goddess. Verg.

¹ Id, thus used, often refers to a clause, or to the general thought, as in this example.

² Applied to Pythagoras by his disciples. *Ipse* is often thus used of a superior, as of a master, teacher, etc.

³ Compare the Greek καὶ αὐτός.

- 7. For the use of the Nominative ipse in connection with the Ablative Absolute, see 431, note 3.
- 453. Relative Pronouns.—The relative is often used where the English idiom requires a demonstrative or personal pronoun; sometimes even at the beginning of a sentence:

Rēs loquitur ipsa, quae semper valet, the fact itself speaks, and this (which) ever has weight. Cic. Qui proelium committunt, they engage in battle. Caes. Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic.

1. Relatives and Demonstratives are often correlatives to each other: $\hbar ie-qu\bar{\imath}$, $iste-qu\bar{\imath}$, etc. These combinations generally retain the ordinary force of the separate words, but see $is-qu\bar{\imath}$, $\bar{\imath}dem-qu\bar{\imath}$, 451, 4 and 5.

Note.—The neuter quidquid, accompanied by an adjective, a participle, or a Genitive, may be used of persons:

Mätres et quidquid tecum invalidum est delige, select the mothers and whatever feeble persons there are with you (lit., whatever there is with you feeble). Verg. Quidquid erat patrum, whatever fathers there were. Liv. See also 397, 3, note 5.

2. In Two Successive Clauses, the *relative* may be—(1) expressed in both, (2) expressed in the first and omitted in the second, (3) expressed in the first and followed by a demonstrative in the second:

Nos qui sermoni non interfuissemus et quibus Cotta sententias tradidisset, we who had not been present at the conversation, and to whom Cotta had reported the opinions. Cic. Dumnorix qui principatum obtinebat ae plebi acceptus erat, Dumnorix, who held the chief authority, and who was acceptable to the common people. Caes. Quae nec haberemus nec his atteremur, which we should neither have nor use. Cic.

Note 1.—Several relatives may appear in successive clauses:

Omnës qui vëstitum, qui tëcta, qui cultum vitae, qui praesidia contra feras invenerunt, all who introduced (invented) clothing, houses, the refinements of life, protection against wild beasts. Cic.

Note 2.—A relative clause with is is often equivalent to a substantive: $i\bar{\imath}$ $qu\bar{\imath}$ $audiunt = aud\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}or\bar{\imath}s$, 'hearers.'

3. Two Relatives sometimes occur in the same clause:

Artes quas qui tenent, arts, whose possessors (which who possess). Cic.

4. A Relative Clause is sometimes equivalent to the Ablative with pro?

Spērō, quae tua prūdentia est, tē valēre, I hope you are well, such is your prudence (which is, etc.). Cic.

Note.—Quae tua prūdentia est = quā es prūdentiā = prō tuā prūdentiā, means such is your prudence, or you are of such prudence, or in accordance with your prüdence, etc.

5. Relative with Adjective.—Adjectives belonging in sense to the antecedent, especially comparatives, superlatives, and numerals, sometimes stand in the relative clause in agreement with the relative:

Vāsa, quae pulcherrima vīderat, the most beautiful vessels which he had seen (vessels, which the most beautiful he had seen). Cic. Dē servīs suīs, quem habuit fidēlissimum, mīsit, he sent the most faithful of the slaves that he had. Nep.

6. The neuter, quod, used as an adverbial Accusative, often stands at the beginning

¹ Of the general or indefinite relative quisquis.

of a sentence or clause, especially before \$\vec{s}\$, \$n\vec{s}\$, nisi, \$ets\vec{s}\$, and sometimes before quia, quoniam, utinam, etc., to indicate a close connection with what precedes. In translating it is sometimes best omitted, and sometimes best rendered by now, in fact, but, and:

Quod sī ceciderint, but if they should fall. Cic. Quod sī ego rescīvissem id prius, now if I had learned this sooner. Ter.

7. Qui dicitur, qui vocătur, or the corresponding active, quem dicunt, quem vocant, are often used in the sense of so-called, the so-called, what they or you call, etc.:

Vestra quae dīcitur vīta, mors est, your eo-called life (lit., your, which is called life) is death. Cic. Lēx ista quam vocās non est lēx, that law, as you call it, is not a law. Cic.

454. Interrogative Pronouns.—The Interrogative quis is used substantively; qui, adjectively:

Quis ego sum, who am I? Cic. Quid faciet, what will he do? Cic. Qui vir fuit, what kind of a man was he? Cic.

1. Occasionally quis is used adjectively and qui substantively:

Quis rex unquam fuit, what king was there ever? Cic. Qui sīs, considera, consider who you are. Cic.

Note.—The neuter, quid, is sometimes used of persons; see 397, 3, note 5.

2. Quid, why, how is it that, etc., is often used adverbially (378, 2), or stands apparently unconnected: 2 quid, 'why?' 'what?' quid enim, 'why then?' 'what then?' 'what indeed?' quid ita, 'why so?' quid quod, 'what of the fact that?' quid sī, 'what if?':

Quid vēnīstī, why have you come? Plaut. Quid enim? metusne conturbet, what then? would fear disturb us? Cic. Quid quod delectantur, what of the fact that they are delighted? Cic.

3. Two Interrogatives sometimes occur in the same clause:

Quis quem fraudavit, who defrauded, and whom did he defraud (lit., who defrauded whom)? Cic.

4. Tantus sometimes accompanies the interrogative pronoun:

Quae fuit unquam in ūllō homine tanta constantia, was there ever so great constancy in any man? Cic.

455. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.3—Aliquis, quis, qui, and quispiam, are all indefinite—some one, any one:

Est aliquis, there is some one. Liv. Sēnsus aliquis esse potest, there may be some sensation. Cic. Dixit quis, some one said. Cic. Sī quis rēx, if any king. Cic. Alia rēs quaepiam, any other thing. Cic.

- 1. Quis and quī are used chiefly after sī, nisi, nē, and num. Aliquis and quis are generally used substantively, aliquī and quī adjectively. Aliquis and aliquī after sī, nisi, etc., are emphatic:
 - Sī est aliquī sēnsus in morte, if there is any sensation whatever in death. Cic.
 - 2. Nescio quis and nescio qui often supply the place of indefinite pronouns:

¹ Here quod refers to something that precedes, and means in reference to which, in reference to this, in this connection, etc. For other examples, see Caesar, B. G., I., 14, and VII., 88.

² In some instances quid is readily explained by the ellipsis of some form of dico or of sum.

³ For a full illustration of the use of indefinite pronouns, see Draeger, I., pp. 87-103.

Nesciŏ quis loquitur, some one speaks (lit., I know not who speaks, or one speaks, I know not who). Plaut. Nesciŏ quid mihi animus praesāgit malī, my mind forebodes some evil (191, note). Ter.

456. Quidam, 'a certain one,' is less indefinite than aliquis:

Quidam rhetor antiquus, a certain ancient rhetorician. Cic. Accurrit quidam, a certain one runs up. Hor.

- 1. Quidam with an adjective is sometimes used to qualify or soften the statement:
- Jūstitia mīrifica quaedam vidētur, justice seems somewhat wonderful. Cic.
- 2. Quidam with quasi, and sometimes without it, has the force of a certain, a kind of, as it were:

Quasi alumna quaedam, a certain foster-child, as it were. Cic.

457. Quisquam and ūllus are used chiefly in negative and conditional sentences, and in interrogative sentences implying a negative:

Neque me quisquam agnovit, nor did any one recognize me. Cic. SI quisquam, if any one. Cic. Num censes allum animal esse, do you think there is any animal? Cic.

1. $N \in m \delta$ is the negative of quisquam, and like quisquam is generally used substantively, rarely adjectively:

Nëminem laesit, he harmed no one. Cic. Nëmo poëta, no poet. Cic.

 Nüllus is the negative of üllus, and is generally used adjectively, but it sometimes supplies the Genitive and Ablative of nēmö, which generally wants those cases:

Nullum animal, no animal. Cic. Nullius aures, the ears of no one. Cic.

3. Nūllus and nihil are sometimes used for an emphatic non:

Nüllus vēnit, he did not come. Cic. Mortuī nülli sunt, the dead are not. Cic.

458. Quivis, quilibet, 'any one whatever,' and quisque, 'every one,' 'each one,' are general indefinites (190):

Quaelibet res, anything. Cic. Tuōrum quisque necessāriōrum, each one of your friends. Cic.

 Quisque with superlatives and ordinals is generally best rendered by all, or by ever, always; with primus by very, possible:

Epicurcos doctissimus quisque contemnt, all the most learned despise the Epicureans, or the most learned ever despise, etc. Cic. Primo quoque die, the earliest day possible, the very first. Cic.

2. Ut quisque—ita with the superlative in both clauses is often best rendered, the more—the more:

Ut quisque sibǐ plūrimum confidit, ita māximē excellit, the more one confides in one's self, the more one excels. Cic.

459. Alius means 'another, other'; alter, 'the one,' 'the other' (of two), 'the second,' 'a second.' They are often repeated: alius—alius, one—another; alii—alii, some—others; alter—alter, the one—the other; alteri—alteri, the one party—the other:

Lēgātōs alium ab aliō aggreditur, he tampers with the ambassadors one after another. Sall. Aliī glōriae serviunt, aliī pecūniae, some are slaves to glory, others to money. Cic. Quidquid negat alter, et alter, whatever one denies, the

other denies. Hor. Alter erit Tiphys, there will be a second Tiphys. Verg. Tū nunc eris alter ab illō, you will now be next after him. Verg. Alterī dīmicant, alterī timent, one party contends, the other fears. Cic.

1. Alius or alter repeated in different cases, or combined with alius or aliter, often involves an ellipsis:

Alius alia via civitatem auxerunt, they advanced the state, one in one way, another in another. Liv. Aliter alii vivunt, some live in one way, others in another. Cic.

2. After alius, aliter, and the like, atque, āc, and et often mean than: Non alius essem atque sum, I would not be other than I am. Cic.

3. When alter-alter refer to objects previously mentioned, the first alter usually refers to the latter object, but may refer to either:

Inimīcus, competitor, cum alterō—cum alterō, an enemy, a rival, with the latter—with the former. Cic.

4. Uterque means both, each of two. In the plural it generally means both, each of two parties, but sometimes both, each of two persons or things; regularly so with nouns which are plural in form but singular in sense:

Utrīque vīctōriam crūdēliter exercēbant, both parties made a cruel use of victory Sall. Palmās utrāsque tetendit, he extended both his hands, Verg.

CHAPTER V.

SYNTAX OF VERBS.

SECTION I.

AGREEMENT OF VERBS .- USE OF VOICES.

RULE XXXVI.-Agreement of Verb with Subject.

460. A finite verb agrees with its subject in NUMBER and PERSON:

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world. Cic. Ego rēgēs ējēcī, vōs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

1. Participles in Compound Tenses agree with the subject according to 438. See also 301, 1 and 2:

Thebani accusati sunt, the Thebans were accused. Cic.

NOTE 1.—In the compound forms of the Infinitive, the participle in um sometimes occurs without any reference to the gender or number of the subject:

Diffidentia futurum quae imperavisset, from doubt that those things which he had commanded would take place. Sall.

Note 2 .- A General or Indefinite subject is often denoted-

1) By the First or Third Person Plural, and in the Subjunctive by the Second Person

Singular: dīcimus, 'we (people) say'; dīcunt, 'they say'; dīcūs, 'you (any one) may say':

Sī beātī esse volumus, if we wish to be happy. Cic. Agere quod agas considerāto decet, you (one) should do considerately whatever you do (one does). Cic.

2) By an Impersonal Passive:

Ad fanum concurritur, they rush to the temple. Cic. Nisi cum virtute vivatur, unless they live (unless one lives) virtuously. Cic.

Note 3.—For the Pronominal Subject contained in the verb, see 368, 2.

NOTE 4 .- For the Omission of the Verb, see 368, 3.

- 461. SYNESIS.—Sometimes the predicate is construed according to the *real meaning* of the subject without regard to grammatical gender or number. Thus—
 - 1. With collective nouns, pars, multitūdo, and the like:

Multitūdo abeunt, the multitude depart. Liv. Pars per agros dīlāpsī, a part (some) dispersed through the fields. Liv.

Note 1.—Here $multitud\check{o}$ and pars, though singular and feminine in form, are plural and masculine in sense; see also 438, 6. Conversely, the Imperative singular may be used in addressing a multitude individually:

Adde defectionem Siciliae, add (to this, soldiers) the revolt of Sicily. Liv.

Note 2.—Of two verbs with the same collective noun, the former is often singular, and the latter plural:

Juventus ruit certantque, the youth rush forth and contend. Verg.

2. With mīlia, often masculine in sense:

Caesī sunt tria mīlia, three thousand men were slain. Liv.

3. With quisque, uterque, alius-alium, alter-alterum, and the like:

Uterque ēdūcunt, they each lead out. Caes. Alter alterum vidēmus, we see each other. Cic.

4. With singular subjects accompanied by an Ablative with cum:

Dux cum principibus capiuntur, the leader with his chiefs is taken. Liv. Quid hūc tantum hominum (= tot hominēs) incēdunt, why are so many men coming hither? Plaut. See also 438, 6.

5. With partim—partim in the sense of pars—pars:

Bonorum partim necessaria, partim non necessaria sunt, of good things some are necessary, others are not necessary. Cic.

462. Sometimes the verb agrees, not with its subject, but with an Appositive or with a Predicate Noun:

Volsinii, oppidum Tuscōrum, concremătum est, Volsinii, a town of the Tuscans, was burned. Plin. Non omnis error stultitia est dicenda, not every error should be called folly. Cic. Puerl Trōjānum dīcitur agmen, the boys are called the Trojan band. Verg.

NOTE 1.—The verb regularly agrees with the appositive when that is urbs, oppidum, or cīvitās, in apposition with plural names of places, as in the first example.

NOTE 2.—The verb agrees with the predicate noun when that is nearer or more emphatic than the subject, as in the second example.

NOTE 3.—The verb sometimes agrees with a noun in a subordinate clause after quam, nisi, etc.:

Nihil aliud nisi pax quaesīta est, nothing but peace was sought. Cic.

- 463. With two or more subjects the verb agrees—
- I. With one subject, and is understood with the others:

Aut mores spectari aut fortuna solet, either character or fortune is wont to be regarded. Cic. Homerus fuit et Hesiodus ante Romam conditam, Homer and Hesiod lived (were) before the founding of Rome. Cic.

II. With all the subjects conjointly, and is accordingly in the plural number:

Lentulus, Scīpiŏ periërunt, Lentulus and Scipio perished. Cic. Ego et Cicerŏ valēmus, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Tu et Tullia valētis, you and Tullia are well. Cic.

- 1. With SUBJECTS DIFFERING IN PERSON, the verb takes the first person rather than the second, and the second rather than the third; see examples.
 - 2. For Participles in Compound Tenses, see 439.
- 3. Two Subjects as a Unit.—Two singular subjects forming in sense a unit or whole, admit a singular verb:

Senătus populusque intellegit, the senate and people (i. e., the state as a unit) understand. Cic. Tempus necessităsque postulat, time and necessity (i. e., the crisis) demand. Cic.

4. WITH AUT OR NEC.—When the subjects connected by aut, vel, nec, neque or seu, differ in person, the verb is usually in the plural; but when they are of the same person, the verb usually agrees with the nearest subject:

Haec neque ego neque tū fēcimus, neither you nor I have done these things. Ter. Aut Brūtus aut Cassius jūdicāvit, either Brutus or Cassius judged. Cic.

- 464. Voices.—With transitive verbs, a thought may at the pleasure of the writer be expressed either actively or passively. But—
- I. That which in the active construction would be the *object* must be the *subject* in the passive; and—
- II. That which in the active would be the subject must be put in the Ablative with \bar{a} or ab for persons, and in the Ablative alone for things (415, I.; 420):

Deus omnia constituit, God ordained all things. Ā Deo omnia constituta sunt, all things were ordained by God. Cic. Dei providentia mundum administrat, the providence of God rules the world. Dei providentia mundus administratur, the world is ruled by the providence of God. Cic.

465. The Passive Voice, like the Greek Middle, is sometimes equivalent to the Active with a reflexive pronoun:

Lavantur in fluminibus, they bathe (wash themselves) in the rivers. Caes.

¹ Most Passive forms once had both a *Middle* and a *Passive* meaning, as in Greek; but in Latin the *Middle* or *Reflexive* meaning has nearly disappeared, though retained to a certain extent in special verbs.

Non hie victoria vertitur, not upon this point (here) does victory turn (turn itself). Verg.

1. Internsitive Verbs (193) have regularly only the active voice, but they are sometimes used impersonally in the passive:

Curritur ad praetorium, they run to the praetorium (it is run to). Cic. Mihī cum iīs vīvendum est, I must live with them. Cic.

Note.—Verbs which are usually intransitive are occasionally used transitively, especially in poetry:

Ego cur invideor, why am I envied? Hor.

2. Deponent Veres, though passive in form, are in signification transitive or intransitive:

Illud mīrābar, I admired that. Cic. Ab urbe proficisei, to set out from the city. Caes.

NOTE 1.—Originally many deponent verbs seem to have had the force of the Greek Middle voice: glarior, 'I boast myself,' 'I boast'; vescor, 'I feed myself.'

NOTE 2.—SEMI-DEPONENTS have some of the active forms and some of the passive, without change of meaning; see 268, 3.

SECTION II.

THE INDICATIVE AND ITS TENSES.

I. PRESENT INDICATIVE.

466. The Present Indicative represents the action of the verb as taking place at the present time:

Ego et Cicero valēmus, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Hoc tē rogo, I ask you for this. Cic.

Note.—The Present of the Active Periphrastic Conjugation denotes an intended or future action; that of the Passive, a present necessity or duty:

Bellum scripturus sum, I intend to write the history of the war. 1 Sall. Legendus est hic örator, this orator ought to be read. 1 Cic.

467. Hence the Present Tense is used-

I. Of actions and events which are actually taking place at the present time, as in the above examples.

II. Of actions and events which, as belonging to all time, belong of course to the present, as general truths and customs:

Nihil est amābilius virtūte, nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cic. Fortēs fortūna adjuvat, fortune helps the brave. Ter.

III. Of past actions and events which the writer wishes, for effect, to picture before the reader as present. The Present, when so used, is called the Historical Present:

¹ Scripturus sum may be variously rendered, I intend to write, am about to write, am to write, am destined to write, etc.; legendus est means he ought to be read, deserves to be read, must be read, etc.

Jugurtha vallo moenia circumdat, Jugurtha surrounded the city with a rampart. Sall.

1. The HISTORICAL PRESENT is used much more freely in Latin than in English. It is therefore generally best rendered by a past tense.

2. The Present is often used of a present action which has been going on for some time, especially after jamdiū, jamdūdum, etc.:

Jamdiū Ignoro quid agās, I have not known for a long time what you have been doing. Cic.

3. The Present in Latin, as in English, may be used of authors whose works are extant:

Xenophon facit Socratem disputantem, Xenophon represents Socrates discussing. Cic.

4. With dum, 'while,' the Present is generally used, whether the action is present, past, or future:

Dum ea parant, Saguntum oppūgnābātur, while they were (are) making these preparations, Saguntum was attacked. Liv. Dum have geruntur, Caesarī nūntiātum est, while these things were taking place, it was announced to Caesar. Caes.

Note.—But with dum, meaning as long as, the Present can be used only of present time.

5. The Present is sometimes used of an action really future, especially in animated discourse and in conditions:

Quam prendimus arcem, what stronghold do we seize, or are we to seize? Verg. Sī vincimus, omnia tūta erunt, if we conquer, all things will be safe. Sall.

6. The Present is sometimes used of an attempted or intended action:

Virtūtem accendit, he tries to kindle their valor. Verg. Quid mē terrēs, why do you try to terrify me? Verg.

II. IMPERFECT INDICATIVE.

468. The Imperfect Indicative represents the action as taking place in past time:

Stābant nōbilissimī juvenēs, there stood (were standing) most noble youths. Liv. Collēs oppidum cingēbant, hills encompassed the town. Caes. Mōtūrus exercitum erat, he was intending to move his army. Liv.

Note.—For the Imperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugations in conditional sentences, see ${\bf 511}, \, 2$

469. Hence the Imperfect is used especially—

I. In lively description, whether of scenes or events:

Ante oppidum plānitiēs patēbat, before the town extended a plain. Caes. Fulgentēs gladios vidēbant, they saw (were seeing) the gleaning swords. Cic.

II. Of customary or repeated actions and events, often rendered was wont, etc.:

¹ Here the time denoted by parant is present relatively to oppūgnābātur, and therefore really past.

Pausanias epulābātur more Persārum, Pausanias was wont to banquet in the Persian style. Nep.

1. The Imperfect is sometimes used of an attempted or intended action:1

Sēdābant tumultūs, they attempted to quell the seditions. Liv.

2. The Imperfect is often used of a past action which had been going on for some time, especially with jamdiù, jamdùdum, etc.: 1

Domicilium Romae multos jam annos habebat, he had already for many years had his residence at Rome. Cic.

3. The Latin sometimes uses the Imperfect where the English requires the Present: 2

Pāstum animantibus nātūra eum quī cuique aptus erat, comparāvit, nature has prepared for animals that food which is adapted to each. Cic.

Note 1 .- For the Imperfect in Letters, see 472, 1.

Note 2 .- For the Descriptive Imperfect in Nabration, see 471, 6.

Note 3.—For the *Historical Tenses* in expressions of Duty, Propriety, Necessity, etc., see 476, 4.

III. FUTURE INDICATIVE.

470. The Future Indicative represents the action as one which will take place in future time:

Scrībam ad tē, I shall write to you. Cic. Nūnquam aberrābimus, we shall never go astray. Cic.

1. In Latin, as in English, the Future Indicative sometimes has the force of an Imperative:

Cūrābis et scrībēs, you will take care and write. Cic.

2. Actions which really belong to future time are almost invariably expressed by the Future tense, though sometimes put in the Present in English:

Năturam si sequemur, nunquam aberrabimus, if we follow nature, we shall never go astray. Cic.

IV. PERFECT INDICATIVE.

471. The Perfect Indicative has two distinct uses:

I. As the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite, it represents the action as at present completed, and is rendered by our Perfect with have:

De genere belli dixi, I have spoken of the character of the war. Cic.

II. As the Historical Perfect or Perfect Indefinite, it represents the action simply as an historical fact:

¹ Observe that the peculiarities of the Present reappear in the Imperfect. This arises from the fact that these two tenses are precisely allke in representing the action in its *progress*, and that they differ only in *time*. The one views the action in the present, the other transfers it to the past.

² This occurs occasionally in the statement of general truths and in the description of natural scenes, but in such cases the truth or the scene is viewed not from the *present* but from the *past*.

Miltiades est accusatus, Miltiades was accused. Nep. Quid facturi fuistis, what did you intend to do, or what would you have done? Cic.

Note.—For the Perfect of the Periphrastic Conjugations in conditional sentences, see ${\bf 476}, {\bf 1}.$

1. The Perfect is sometimes used-

1) Instead of the Present to denote the suddenness of the action:

Terra tremit, mortalia corda stravit pavor, the earth trembles, fear over-whelms (has overwhelmed) the hearts of mortals. Verg.

2) To contrast the past with the present, implying that what was true then is not true now:

Habuit, non habet, he had, but has not. Cic. Fuit Ilium, Ilium was. Verg.

2. The Perfect Indicative with paene, prope, may often be rendered by might, would, or by the Pluperfect Indicative:

Brūtum non minus amo, paene dixī, quam tē, I love Brutus not less, I might almost say, or I had almost said, than I love you. Cic.

3. The Latin sometimes employs the Perfect and Pluperfect where the English uses the Present and Imperfect, especially in repeated actions, and in verbs which want the Present (297):

Meminit praeteritorum, he remembers the past. Cic. Cum ad villam vēnī, hoc me delectat, when I come (have come) to a villa, this pleases me. Cic. Memineram Paullum, I remembered Paullus. Cic.

4. Conjunctions meaning as soon as 2 are usually followed by the Perfect; sometimes by the Imperfect or Historical Present. But the Pluperfect is sometimes used, especially to denote the result of a completed action:

Postquam cecidit Îlium, after (as soon as) Ilium fell, or had fallen. Verg. His ubi nātum prosequitur dictis, when he had addressed his son with these words. Verg. Posteāquam consul fuerat, after he had been consul. Cic. Anno tertio postquam profügerat, in the third year after he had fled. Nep.

5. In Subordinate Clauses after cum (quum), \$\(\bar{s} \), etc., the Perfect is sometimes used of Repeated Actions, General Truths, and Customs: 5

Cum ad villam vēnī, hốc mẽ dēlectat, whenever I come (have come) to a villa, this delights me. Cic.

NOTE.—In such cases the principal clause generally retains the Present, as in the example just given, but in *poetry* and in *late proce* it sometimes admits the Perfect:

Tulit punctum qui miscuit utile dulci, he wins (has won) favor who combines (has combined) the useful with the agreeable. Hor.

6. In Animated Narrative, the Perfect usually narrates the leading events, and the Imperfect describes the attendant circumstances:

Cultum mūtāvit, vēste Mēdicā ūtēbātur, epulābātur more Persārum, he changed his mode of life, used the Median dress, feasted in the Persian style.

¹ Literally, has recalled, and so remembers, as the result of the act. The Latin presents the completed act, the English the result.

² As postquam, ubĭ, ubĭ prīmum, ut, ut prīmum, simul atque (āc), etc.

³ Historical present; lit., when he attends.

⁴ And so was then a man of consular rank.

⁵ This use of the Latin Perfect corresponds to the Gnomic Aorist in Greek.

Nep. Sē in oppida recēpērunt mūrīsque sē tenēbant, they betook themselves into their towns and kept themselves within their walls. Liv.

NOTE 1.—The Compound Tenses in the Passive often denote the result of the action. Thus, döctus est may mean either he has been instructed, or he is a learned man (lit., an instructed man):

Fuit doctus ex disciplina Stoicorum, he was instructed in (lit., out of) the learning of the Stoics. Cic. Navis parata fuit, the vessel was ready (lit., was prepared). Liv.

Note 2. - For the Perfect in Letters, see 472, 1.

Note 3.—For the *Historical Tenses* in expressions of Duty, Propriety, Necessity, etc., see 476, 4.

V. PLUPERFECT INDICATIVE.

472. The Pluperfect Indicative represents the action as completed at some past time:

Pyrrhī temporibus jam Apollŏ versūs facere dēsierat, in the times of Pyrrhus Apollo had already ceased to make verses.¹ Cic. Cōpiās quās pro castrīs collocāverat, redūxit, he led back the forces which he had stationed before the camp. Caes. Cum esset Dēmosthenēs, multī orātōrēs clārī fuērunt et anteā fuerant, when Demosthenes lived there were many illustrious orators, and there had been before. Cic.

1. In Letters, the writer often adapts the tense to the time of the reader, using the Imperfect or Perfect of present actions and events, and the Pluperfect of those which are past:²

Nihil habēbam quod scrīberem; ad tuās omnēs epistulās rescrīpseram prīdiē, I have (had) nothing to write; I replied to all your letters yesterday. Cic. Prīdiē Īdūs haec scrīpsī; eō diē apud Pompōnium eram cēnātūrus, I write this on the day before the Ides; I am going to dine to-day with Pomponius. Cic.

2. The Pluperfect after cum, sī, etc., is often used of Repeated Actions, General Truths, and Customs: 5

Si hostës dëterrëre nëquiverant circumveniëbant, if they were (had been) unable to deter the enemy, they surrounded them. Sall.

NOTE 1.—For the *Pluperfect* in the sense of the English Imperfect, see **471**, 8. NOTE 2.—For the *Historical Tenses* in expressions of Duty, Propriety, Necessity, etc., see **476**, 4.

² This change is by no means uniformly made, but is subject to the pleasure of the writer. It is most common near the beginning and the end of letters.

³ Observe that the adverbs and the adverbial expressions are also adapted to the time of the reader. *Heri*, 'yesterday,' becomes to the reader *prādiā*, 'the day before '—i. e., the day before the writing of the letter. In the same way *hodiā*, 'to-day,' 'This day,' becomes to the reader *eō diā*, 'Thiat day,'

⁴ The Imperfect of the Periphrastic Conjugation is sometimes thus used of *future* events which are expected to happen *before* the receipt of the letter. Events which will be future to the reader as well as to the writer must be expressed by the Future.

⁵ See the similar use of the Perfect, 471, 5.

6 That is, whenever they were unable.

 $^{^{1}}$ Observe that $d\bar{\epsilon}sierat$ represents the action as already completed at the time designated.

VI. FUTURE PERFECT INDICATIVE.

473. The Future Perfect Indicative represents the action as one which will be completed at some future time:

Rōmam cum vēnerō, scrībam ad tē, when I shall have reached Rome, I will write to you. Cic. Dum tū haec legēs, ego illum fortasse convēnerō, when you read this, I shall perhaps have already met him. Cic.

1. The FUTURE PERFECT is sometimes used to denote the *complete* accomplishment of the work:

Ego meum officium praestitero, I shall discharge my duty. Caes.

2. The FUTURE PERFECT is sometimes found in conditional clauses where we use the Present:

Si interpretari potuero, his verbis ūtitur, if I can (shall have been able to) understand him, he uses these words. Cic.

VII. USE OF THE INDICATIVE.

RULE XXXVII.-Indicative.

474. The Indicative is used in treating of facts:

Deus mundum aedificăvit, God made (built) the world. Cic. Nonne expulsus est patria, was he not banished from his country? Cic. Hoe feci dum licuit, I did this as long as it was permitted. Cic.

475. The Indicative is thus used in treating of facts—

I. In *Principal Clauses*, whether Declarative as in the first example or Interrogative as in the second.

II. In Subordinate Clauses. Thus-

1. In Relative Clauses:

Dixit id quod dīgnissimum rē pūblicā fuit, he stated that which was most worthy of the republic. Cic. Quicquam bonum est, quod non eum quī id possidet meliorem facit, is anything good which does not make him better who possesses it? Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive in Relative Clauses, see 497; 500; 503; 507, 2, etc.

2. In Conditional Clauses:

Sī haec cīvitās est, cīvis sum ego, if this is a state, I am a citizen. Cic.

Note 1.—For the special uses of the *Indicative* in Conditional Sentences, see 508. Note 2.—For the *Subjunctive* in Conditional Sentences, see 509; 510.

3. In Concessive Clauses:

Quamquam intellegunt, tamen nunquam dicunt, although they understand, they never speak. Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive in Concessive Clauses, see 515.

¹ Including, of course, all simple sentences.

4. In Causal Clauses:

Quoniam supplication decreta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed. Cic. Quia honore digni habentur, because they are deemed worthy of honor. Curt.

Note .- For the Subjunctive in Causal Clauses, see 516; 517.

5. In Temporal Clauses:

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are silent they approve. Cic. Priusquam lücet, adsunt, they are present before it is light. Cic.

Note.-For the Subjunctive in Temporal Clauses, see 519; 520; 521.

- 476. Special Uses.—The Indicative is sometimes used where our idiom would suggest the Subjunctive:
- 1. The *Indicative* of the *Periphrastic Conjugations* is often so used in the historical tenses, especially in conditional sentences (511, 2):

Haec condició non accipienda fuit, this condition should not have been accepted. Cic.

2. The *Historical Tenses* of the *Indicative*, particularly the *Pluperfect*, are sometimes used for *effect*, to represent as an actual fact something which is shown by the context never to have become fully so:

Viceramus, nisi recepisset Antonium, we should have (lit., had) conquered, had he not received Antony. Cic. See 511, 1.

3. Pronouns and Relative Adverbs, made general by being doubled or by assuming the suffix cumque (187, 3), take the Indicative:

Quisquis est, is est sapiens, whoever he is, he is wise. Cic. Hoe ultimum, utcunque initum est, proclium fuit, this, however it was commenced, was the last battle. Liv. Quidquid oritur, qualecumque est, causam habet, whatever comes into being, of whatever character it may be (lit., is), it has a cause. Cic.

4. In expressions of *Duty, Propriety, Necessity, Ability*, and the like, the Latin often uses the Indicative, chiefly in the historical tenses, in a manner somewhat at variance with the English idiom:

Non suscipi bellum oportuit, the war should not have been undertaken.¹ Liv. Eum contumeliis onerasti, quem colere debebas, you have loaded with insults one whom you should have (ought to have) revered. Cic. Multos possum bonos viros nominare, I might name (lit., I am able to name) many good men. Cic. Hanc mecum poteras requiescere noctem, you might rest (might have rested) with me this night. Verg.

5. The Indicative of the verb sum is often used with longum, aequum, aequius, difficile, jūstum, melius, pār, ūtilius, etc., in such expressions as longum est, 'it would be tedious,' melius erat, 'it would have been better':

Longum est persequi utilitates, it would be tedious (is a long task) to recount the uses. Cic. Melius fuerat, promissum non esse servatum, it would have been better that the promise should not have been kept. Cic.

¹ Literally, it was fitting or proper that the war should not be undertaken.

SECTION III.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND ITS TENSES.

477. The Latin Subjunctive ' has two principal uses—I. It may represent an action as WILLED or DESIRED:

Amēmus patriam, Let us love our country. Cic.

- II. It may represent an action as PROBABLE or POSSIBLE: Quaerat quispiam, some one MAY INQUIRE. Cic.
- 478. Tenses in the Subjunctive do not designate the time of the action so definitely as in the Indicative.
- 479. The Present Subjunctive in principal clauses ² embraces in a vague and general manner both *present* and *future* time: ³

Amëmus patriam, let us love our country (now and ever). Cic. Quaerat quispiam, some one may (or will) inquire (at any time). Cic.

480. The IMPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE in principal clauses relates sometimes to the *past* and sometimes to the *present*:

Crederes victos, vanquished you would have thought them. Liv. Utinam possem, would that I were able (now). Cic.

481. The Perfect Subjunctive in principal clauses relates sometimes to the past, but more frequently to the present or future:

¹ The Latin Subjunctive, it will be remembered (p. 117, foot-note 4), contains the forms and the meaning of two kindred moods, the Subjunctive proper, and the Optative. In Latin, the forms characteristic of these two moods, used without any difference of meaning, are made to supplement each other. Thus, in the Present, the Optative forms are found in the First Conjugation, and the Subjunctive forms in the Second, Third, and Fourth. In their origin they are only special developments of certain forms of the Present Indicative, denoting continued and attempted action. From this idea of attempted action was readily developed on the one hand desire, will, as we attempt only what we desire, and on the other hand probability, possibility, as we shall very likely accomplish what we are already attempting. These two meanings, united in one word, lie at the basis of all Subjunctive constructions in Latin. On the origin, history, and use of the Subjunctive, see Delbrück, 'Conjunctiv und Optativ'; Curtius, 'Verbum,' II., pp. 55-95; Draeger, II., pp. 439-743; Roby, II., pp. 202-348; also a paper by the author on 'The Development of the Latin Subjunctive in Principal Clauses,' Transactions Am. Phil. Assoc., 1879.

² For the tenses of the Subjunctive in Subordinate clauses, see 490.

³ The Present Subjunctive in its origin is closely related both in form and in meaning to the Future Indicative. Thus, in the Third and Fourth Conjugations, no future forms for the Indicative have been developed, but Subjunctive and Optative forms supply their place, as regam, audiam (Subjunctive), and regēs, reget, etc., and audiës, audiet, etc. (Optative).

Fuerit malus cīvis, he may have been (admit that he was) a bad citizen. Cic. Në trānsierīs i Ibērum, do not cross the Ebro (now or at any time). Liv.

482. The PLUPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE in principal clauses relates to the past:

Utinam potuissem, would that I had been able. Cic.

SECTION IV.

SUBJUNCTIVE IN PRINCIPAL CLAUSES.

RULE XXXVIII.-Subjunctive of Desire, Command.

483. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS DESIRED:

Valeant cīvēs, may the citizens be Well. Cic. Amēmus patriam, let us love our country. Cic. Ā nōbīs dīligātur, let him be loved by us. Cic. Scrībere nē pigrēre, do not neglect to write. Cic.

1. The Subjunctive of Desire is often accompanied by utinam, and sometimes, especially in the poets, by ut, sī, ō sī:

Utinam conata efficere possim, may I be able to accomplish my endeavors. Cic. Ut illum di perdant, would that the gods would destroy him. Ter.

2. Force of Tenses.—The Present and Perfect imply that the wish may be fulfilled; the Imperfect and Pluperfect, that it can not be fulfilled:

Sint beati, may they be happy. Cic. Ne transier's Iberum, do not cross the Ebro. Liv. Utinam possem, utinam potuissem, would that I were able, would that I had been able. Cic.

Note.—The Imperfect and Pluperfect may often be best rendered should, should have, ought to have:

Hoc diceret, he should have said this. Cic. Mortem oppetiisses, you should have met death. Cic.

3. Negatives.—With the Subjunctive of Desire, the negative is $n\bar{e}$, rarely $n\bar{e}n$; with a connective, $n\bar{e}ve$, neu, rarely neque:

Në audeant, let them not dare. Cic. Non recedamus, let us not recede. Cic. Amës dici pater, neu sinës, etc., may you love to be called father, and may you not përmit, etc. Hor. Nëve minor neu sit productior, let it be neither shorter nor longer. Hor.

Note.—Nēdum, 'not to say,' 'much less,' is used with the Subjunctive:

Vix in teetis frigus vitatur, nedum in marī sit facile abesse ab injūriā, the cold is avoided with difficulty in our houses, much less is it easy to escape (to be absent from) injury on the sea. Cic.

4. The first person of the Subjunctive is often found in earnest or solemn Affirmations:

¹ Observe that the *Perfect* thus used does not at all differ in time from the *Present*, but that it calls attention to the *completion* of the action.

Moriar, sī putŏ, may I die, if I think. Cic. Nē sim salvus, sī scrībō, may I not be safe, if I write. Cic. Sollicitat, ita vīvam, as I live, it troubles me. ¹ Cic.

5. The Subjunctive of Desire is sometimes used in Relative Clauses:

Quod faustum sit, regem create, elect a king, and may it be an auspicious event (may which be auspicious). Liv. Senectus, ad quam utinam perveniatis, old age, to which may you attain. Cic.

Note.—For the Subjunctive of Desire in Subordinate Clauses, see 486, III., note, with foot-note.

6. Modo, modo ne, may accompany the Subjunctive of Desire:

Modo Juppiter adsit, only let Jupiter be present. Verg. Modo ne laudent, only let them not praise. Cic.

484. The Subjunctive of Desire may be in meaning-

I. OPTATIVE, as in prayers and wishes:

Sint beati, may they be happy. Cic. Dī bene vertant, may the gods cause it to turn out well. Plant.

II. HORTATIVE, as in exhortations and entreaties:

Consulamus bonis, let us consult for the good. Cic.

III. CONCESSIVE, as in admissions and concessions:

Fuerint pertinaces, grant (or admit) that they were obstinate. Cic.

IV. IMPERATIVE, as in mild commands, admonitions, warnings, etc., used chiefly in prohibitions:

Illum jocum në sis äspernätus, do not despise that jest. Cic. Scribere në pigrëre, do not neglect to write. Cic.

Note 1.—In prohibitions, the Perfect tense is generally used:

Në transieris Ibërum, do not cross the Ebro. Liv.

NOTE 2.—Except in *prohibitions*, the Second Person Singular in the best prose is used almost exclusively of an *indefinite you*, meaning *one*, any one:

Isto bono utare, you should use (i. e., one should use) that advantage. Cic.

V. Deliberative, as in deliberative questions, to ask what should be:

Huic cēdāmus, hūjus condicionēs audiāmus, shall we yield 2 to him, shall we listen to his terms? Cic. Quid facerem, what was I to do? 3 Verg.

RULE XXXIX.-Potential Subjunctive.

485. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS POSSIBLE:

Hīc quaerat quispiam, here some one MAY INQUIRE. Cic. Ita laudem inveniās, thus you will (or MAY) obtain praise. Ter. Ita amīcos parēs, thus you will make friends. Ter. Vix dīcere ausim, I should scarcely dare to

¹ Here ita vīvam means, may I so live (i. e., may I live only in case this is true).

² Or, ought we to yield, is it your wish that we should yield?

³ Or, what should I have done?

say. Liv. Crēderēs vīctōs, vanquished you would have thought them. Liv. Forsitan quaerātis, perhaps you may inquire. Cic. Hǒc nēmǒ dixerit, no one would say this. Cic. Quis dubitet (= nēmǒ dubitat), who would doubt (or who doubts = no one doubts)? Cic. Hǒc quis ferre possit, who would be able to endure this? Cic.

Note 1.—In the Potential Subjunctive, the Perfect often has nearly the same force as the Present, and the Imperfect is often used where we should expect the Pluperfect: diceres, 'you would have said'; crēderes, putāres, 'you would have thought'; vidēres, cerneres, 'you would have seen':

Tu Platonem laudāveris, you would praise Plato. Cic. Maesti, crēderēs vīctos, redeunt in castra, sad, vanquished you would have thought them, they returned to the camp. Liv.

Note 2 .- On Tenses, see also 478-482.

Note 3.—The Second Person Singular, especially of the Imperfect, is often used of an indefinite you, meaning one, any one: crēderēs, 'you would have thought,' 'any one would have thought,'

486. In the Potential sense, the Subjunctive is used-

I. In Declarative Sentences, to express an affirmation modestly, doubtfully, or conditionally; see examples.

NOTE 1.—Thus, in the language of politeness and modesty, the Potential Subjunctive is often used in verbs of wishing and thinking: velim, 'I should wish,' for volŏ, 'I wish'; nōlim, 'I should be unwilling'; mālim, 'I should prefer':

Ego conseam, I should think, or I am inclined to think. Liv. Mihi dari velim, I should like to have it given to me. Cic.

NOTE 2.—The Potential Subjunctive is used in the conclusion of conditional sentences; see 507, 1, with foot-note.

II. In *Interrogative Sentences*, to ask not what is, but what is *likely to* be, what may be or would be, generally implying a negative answer, as in the last two examples under the rule.

Note.—The Subjunctive with ut, with or without the interrogative ne, occurs in questions expressive of *impatience* or *surprise*: 2

To ut ulla res frangat, how should anything subdue you? Cic. Egone ut mentiar, that I should speak falsely? Plaut.

III. In Subordinate Clauses, whatever the connective, to represent the action as possible rather than real:

Quamquam epulis careat senectus, though old age may be without its feasts. Cic. Quoniam non possent, since they would not be able. Caes. Ubi res posceret, whenever the case might demand. Liv.

Note.—From the Subjunctive of Desire and the Potential Subjunctive in principal clauses have been developed the various uses of the Subjunctive in subordinate clauses.³

² Some grammarians assume an ellipsis of a predicate, as crēdibile est, fierī potest, etc.

3 Thus, the Subjunctive of Desire is used in final, conditional, and concessive clauses; the Potential Subjunctive in clauses of result, and in various others denoting

¹ After forsitan = fors sit an, 'the chance may be whether,' 'perhaps,' the Subjunctive was originally in an indirect question (529), but it may be best treated as Potential. So also with forsan and fortasse.

SECTION V.

THE IMPERATIVE AND ITS TENSES.

RULE XL.-Imperative.

487. The Imperative is used in commands, exhortations, and entreaties:

Jūstitiam cole, practice justice. Cic. Tū nē cēde malīs, do not yield to misfortunes. Verg. Sī quid in tē peccāvī, īgnōsce, if I have sinned against you, pardon me. Cic.

1. The Present Imperative corresponds to the Imperative in English: Justitiam cole, practice justice. Cic. Perge, Catilina, go, Catiline. Cic.

2. The Future Imperative corresponds to the imperative use of the English Future with shall, or to the Imperative let, and is used—

1) In commands involving future rather than present action:

Rem penditote, you shall consider the subject. Cic. Cras petito, dabitur, ask to-morrow, it shall be granted. Plant.

2) In laws, orders, precepts, etc., especially in prohibitions:

Consules nemini parento, the consuls shall be subject to no one. Cic. Salus populi suprema lex esto, the safety of the people shall be the supreme law. Cic.

Note.—The general distinction between the Present Imperative and the Future is

often disregarded, especially in poetry:1

Ubi aciem videris, tum ordines dissipa, when you shall see the line of battle, then scatter the ranks. Liv. Quoniam supplication decreta est, celebratote illos dies, since a thanksgiving has been decreed, celebrate those days. Cic.

3. An Imperative clause may be used instead of a Conditional clause:

Lacesse, jam vidēbis furentem, provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him), you will at once see him frantic. Cic.

4. The place of the Imperative may be supplied by the Subjunctive of De-

sire (483), or by the Future Indicative:

Ne audeant, let them not dare. Cic. Quod optimum videbitur, facies, you will do what shall seem best. Cic.

488. In prohibitions or negative commands, the negative $n\bar{e}$, rarely $n\bar{e}n$, accompanies the Imperative, and if a connective is required, $n\bar{e}ve$ or neu is generally used, rarely neque:

Tũ nẽ cẽde malīs, do not yield to misfortunes. Verg. Hominem mortuum in urbe nẽ sepelītō, nẽve ũritō, thou shalt not bury nor burn a dead body in the city. Cic.

what is likely to be. Moreover, from these two leading uses was developed the idea of a conceived or assumed action, which probably lies at the foundation of all the other uses of this mood, as in causal and temporal clauses, in indirect questions, and in the subordinate clauses of the indirect discourse.

¹ Thus the Future is especially common in certain verbs; and, indeed, in some verbs, as sciŏ, meminī, etc., it is the only form in common use.

- 489. Instead of $n\bar{e}$ with the Present Imperative, the best prose writers generally use—
 - 1) Noli and nolite with the Infinitive:

Nolite putare, do not think (be unwilling to think). Cic.

2) Fac ne or cave, with the Subjunctive:

Fac no quid aliud cures hoc tempore, do not attend to anything else at this time. Cic. Cave facias, beware of doing it, or see that you do not do it. Cic.

3) $N\bar{e}$ with the Perfect Subjunctive, rarely with the Present; see 484, IV., note 1.

SECTION VI.

MOODS IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.

- I. TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN SUBORDINATE CLAUSES.
- 490. In subordinate clauses the tenses of the Subjunctive conform to the following rule:

RULE XLI.-Sequence of Tenses.

491. Principal tenses depend upon principal tenses; historical upon historical:

Nītitur ut vincat, he strives to conquer. Cic. Nēmŏ erit quī cēnseat, there will be no one who will think. Cic. Quaesierās nonne putārém, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. Ut honore dīgnus essem laborāvī, I strove to be worthy of honor. Cic.

- 492. In accordance with this rule, the Subjunctive dependent upon a principal tense, present, future, future perfect, is put—
 - 1. In the PRESENT, to denote incomplete action:

Quaeritur cur dissentiant, the question is asked why they disagree. Cic. Nemo erit qui censeat, there will be no one who will think. Cic.

Note.—Observe that in these examples the action denoted by the Subjunctive belongs either to the *present* time or to the *future*.

2. In the Perfect, to denote completed action:

Quaerāmus quae vitia fuerint, let us inquire what faults there were. Cic. Rogitābit mē ubǐ fuerim, he will ask me where I have been. Ter.

Note 1.—In the sequence of tenses, the Perfect is occasionally treated as a principal tense: 2

Oblītus es quid dixerim, you have forgotten what I said. Cic.

Note 2.—For further illustrations of the sequence of tenses, see 493, 2, note 2.

¹ The Present Subjunctive generally denotes present time in relation to the principal verb. Accordingly, vincat depending upon the present, nititur, denotes present time, while cēnseat depending upon the future, erit, denotes future time.

² For the treatment of the Perfect in the sequence of tenses, see 495.

- 493. The Subjunctive dependent upon an historical tense, imperfect, historical perfect, pluperfect, is put—
 - 1. In the IMPERFECT, to denote incomplete action:

Timēbam nē ēvenīrent ea, I was fearing that those things would take place (i. e., at some future time). Cic. Quaesierās nonne putārem, you had inquired whether I did not think (i. e., at that time). Cic.

Note.—Observe that in these examples the time of the action denoted by the Subjunctive is either the same as that of the principal verb or subsequent to it.

2. In the Pluperfect, to denote completed action:

Themistocles, cum Gracciam liberasset, expulsus est, Themistocles was banished, though he had liberated Greece. Cic.

NOTE 1.—The Pluperfect after an historical tense, like the Perfect after a principal tense, may represent the action as completed in future time; see 496, II.

Note 2.—The sequence of tenses may be further illustrated as follows: 1

Nescit quid faciās, He knows not what you are doing. Nesciet quid faciās, He will not know what you will do.2 Nescīverit quid faciās, He will not have known what you will do. Nescit quid fēceris, He knows not what you have done, or what you did.3 Nesciet quid feceris, He will not khow what you will have done.4 Nescīverit quid fēceris, He will not have known what you will have done. He did not know what you were doing.5 Nesciēbat quid facerēs, Nescīvit quid facerēs, He did not know what you were doing.5 Nescīverat quid facerēs, He had not known what you were doing. He did not know what you had done. Nesciebat quid fecisses, He did not know what you had done. Nescīvit quid fēcissēs, Nescīverat quid fēcissēs, He had not known what you had done.

494. The periphrastic forms in rus and dus conform to the general rule for the sequence of tenses:

Incertum est quam longa vīta futūra sit, it is uncertain how long life will continue. Cic. Incertum erat quō missūrī clāssem forent, it was uncertain whither they would send the fleet. Liv.

495. Peculiarities in Sequence.—The following peculiarities in the sequence of tenses deserve notice:

I. In the sequence of tenses the Latin Perfect is generally treated as an historical tense, even when rendered with have, and thus admits the Imperfect or Pluperfect:

Quoniam quae subsidia habērēs exposuī,6 nunc dīcam, since I have shown

¹ It is not intended to give all the possible meanings of the Subjunctive clauses here used, but simply to illustrate the sequence of tenses.

² Or, he will not know what you are doing. Thus, quid faciās may represent the direct question, quid faciës, 'what shall you do?' or quid facis, 'what are you doing?'

³ Or, what you were doing.

⁴ Or, what you have done, or what you did.

⁵ Or, what you would do. Nescivit may sometimes be rendered, he has not known.

⁶ Exposui, though best rendered by our Perfect Definite with have, is in the Latin

what aids you have, I will now speak. Cic. Hace non ut vos excitarem locutus sum, I have not spoken this to arouse (that I might arouse) you. Cic.

Note.—For the Perfect as a principal tense, see 492, 2, note 1.

II. The *Historical Present* (467, III.) is generally treated as an *historical* tense, but sometimes as a *principal* tense:

Persuadet Castico ut regnum occuparet, he persuaded Casticus to seize the government. Caes. Ubil orant ut sibi parcat, the Ubil implore him to spare them. Caes.

NOTE.—The *Historical Present* includes the Present used of authors (467, 3), the Present with dum (467, 4), the Historical Infinitive (536, 1), etc.:

Chrysippus disputat Aethera esse eum quem homines Jovem appellarent, Chrysippus contends that he whom men call Jupiter is Aether. Cic.

III. The *Imperfect Subjunctive*, even when it refers to present time, as in conditional sentences, is generally treated as an *historical* tense, though sometimes as a *principal* tense:

Nisi ineptum putārem, jūrārem mē ca sentīre quae dīcerem, if I did not think it improper, I would take an oath that I believe those things which I say. Cic. Memorāre pōssem quibus in locīs hostēs populus Rōmānus fūderit, I might state in what places the Roman people routed the enemy. Sall.

IV. The Perfect Infinitive is generally treated as an historical tense, but the Present and the Future Infinitive, the Present and the Future Participle, as also Gerunds and Supines, share the tense of the verb on which they depend, as they express only relative time (537, 550):

Satis videor docuisse, hominis nătūra quanto anteīret animantēs, I think I have sufficiently shown how much the nature of man surpasses that of the other animals (lit., surpassed animals). Cic. Spērō fore 1 ut contingat, I hope it will happen. Cic. Non spērāverat fore ut ad sē dēficerent, he had not hoped that they would revolt to him. Liv. Mīsērunt Delphōs consultum quidnam facerent, they sent to Delphi to ask what they should do. Nep.

V. Clauses containing a general truth usually conform to the law for the sequence of tenses, at variance with the English idiom:

Quanta conscientiae vis esset, ostendit, he showed how great is the power of conscience. Cic.

VI. Clauses denoting consequence or result generally express absolute time, and are thus independent of the law of sequence.² They thus admit the Present or Perfect after historical tenses:

Epamīnondās fidē sīc ūsus est, ut possit jūdicārī,2 Epaminondas used such

treated as the Historical Perfect. The thought is as follows: Since in the preceding topics I set forth the aids which you have, I will now speak, etc.

¹ Literally, I hope it will be that it may happen. Here fore shares the tense of spērŏ, and is accordingly followed by the Present, contingat; but below it shares the tense of spērāverat, and is accordingly followed by the Imperfect, dēficerent.

2 This peculiarity arises from the fact that the result of a past action may itself be

fidelity that it may be judged. Nep. Adeō excellebat Aristīdes abstinentiā, ut Jūstus sit appellātus, Aristīdes so excelled in self-control, that he has been called the Just. Nep.

VII. For the sequence of tenses in the indirect discourse, see 525.

- 496. FUTURE TIME IN THE SUBJUNCTIVE.—When the Future is used in the principal clause, the Future and Future Perfect tenses, wanting in the Latin Subjunctive, are supplied in the subordinate clauses as follows:
- I. The Future is supplied—(1) after a principal tense by the Present, and (2) after an historical tense by the Imperfect:

Omnia sīc agentur ut bellum sēdētur, all things shall be so managed that the war will be brought to a close. Cic. Loquēbantur, etiam cum vellet Caesar, sēsē non esse pūgnātūros, they were saying that they would not fight even when Caesar should wish it. Caes.

II. The Future Perfect is supplied—(1) after a principal tense by the Perfect, and (2) after an historical tense by the Pluperfect:

Respondet sī id sit factum, sē nocitūrum nēminī, he replies that if this should be done (shall have been done) he will harm no one. Caes. Appārēbat rēgnātūrum, quī vīcisset, it was evident that he would be king who should conquer. Liv.

Note 1.—The Future and the Future Perfect tenses are often supplied in the same way, even when the Future does not occur in the principal clause, provided the idea of future time can be easily inferred from the context:

Vereor në laborem augeam, I fear that I shall increase the labor. Cic. Quid dics ferat incertum est, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Quid hostës consilii caperent, exspectaant, they waited to see what plan the enemy would adopt. Caes. Delitui, dum vela dedissent, I hid myself until they should have set sail. Verg.

Note 2.—When the idea of future time must be especially emphasized in the sub-

ordinate clause, the periphrastic forms in rus are used:2

Incertum est quam longa vita futūra sit, it is uncertain how long life will continue. Cic. Incertum erat quō missūrī clāssem forent, it was uncertain whither they would send the fleet. Liv.

Note 3.—The Future Perfect is sometimes supplied in the Passive by futurus sim and futurus essem with the Perfect Participle: 2

Non dubito quin confects jam res futura sit, I do not doubt that the thing will have been already accomplished. Cic.

present, and may thus be expressed by a principal tense. When the result belongs to the present time, the Present is used: possit jūdicārī, 'may be judged now'; when it is represented as completed, the Perfect is used: sit appellātus, 'has been called' (i. e., even to the present day); but when it is represented as simultaneous with the action on which it depends, the Imperfect is used in accordance with the general rule (491).

¹ Sēdētur, referring to the same time as agentur, and vellet, referring to the same

time as esse pūgnātūros, both denote future time.

2 Other traditional periphrastic forms, rarely used in either voice, are—for the FUTURE, futürum sit ut with the Present Subjunctive, and futürum esset ut with the Imperfect; and for the FUTURE PERFECT, futürum sit ut with the Perfect, and futürum esset ut with the Pluperfect.

II. SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF PÜRPOSE.

RULE XLII.-Purpose.

497. The Subjunctive is used to denote Purpose:

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, etc.:

Missī sunt quī (=ut iī) consulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo (who should, or that they should). Nep. Missī sunt dēlectī quī Thermopylas occupārent, picked men were sent to take possession of Thermopylae. Nep. Domum, ubĭ habitāret, lēgit, he selected a house where he might dwell (that he might dwell in it). Cic. Locum petit, unde (=ut inde) hostem invādat, he seeks a position from which he may (that from it he may) attack the enemy. Liv.

II. With ut, nē, quō, quōminus:

Entitur ut vincat, he strives that HE MAY CONQUER. Cic. Pūnit nē peccētur, he punishes that crime MAY not BE COMMITTED. Sen. Lēgum idcircō servī sumus, ut līberī esse possīmus, we are servants of the law for this reason, that we may be free. Cic. Medicō dare quō sit studiōsior, to give to the physician, that (by this means) he may be more attentive. Cic. Nōn recūsāvit quōminus poenam subīret, he did not refuse to submit to punishment. Nep.

1. Ut or utī and nā are the usual conjunctions in clauses denoting purpose. A correlative, ideō, idcircō, eō, etc., sometimes precedes, as in the third example under II.

Note.—With a connective ne becomes neve, neu, rarely neque; see 483, 3:

Lēgem tulit nē quis accūsārētur nēve multārētur, he proposed a law that no one should be accused or punished. Nep.

2. $Qu\bar{o}$, 'by which,' 'that,' is sometimes used in clauses denoting purpose, especially with comparatives, as in the fourth example under II. $Qu\bar{o}minus$, 'by which the less,' 'that thus the less,' 'that not,' is simply $qu\bar{o}$ with the comparative minus. It is sometimes used after verbs of hindering, opposing, and the like, as in the last example under II.

Note.—Quō sētius also occurs in the sense of quōminus; see Cic. Inv., II., 45.

498. CLAUSES OF PURPOSE readily pass into Object Clauses,2

¹ The Subjunctive of Purpose is doubtless in origin a Subjunctive of Desire, expressing the desire or command implied in the action of the principal verb: Tē rogō ut eum juvēs, I ask you to aid him (I ask you, so aid him). Here the second clause, originally independent, contains the desire, wish, involved in rogō. Vereor nē labörem augeam, I fear that I shall increase the labor (I fear, let me not increase the labor). Praestō crit pontifex, quī comitia habeat, the pontiff will be present to hold the comitia (the pontiff will be present, let him hold the comitia). Liv. See Delbrück, 'Conjunctiv und Optativ,' pp. 59-62.

² An Object Clause is one which has become virtually the *object* of a verb. Thus, in 'optō ut id audiātis,' the clause ut id audiātis has become the object of optō, 'I desire.'

but they still retain the Subjunctive. Thus the Subjunctive is used—

I. With verbs signifying Desire and its Expression; hence decision, decree, etc.: 1

Opto ut id audiātis, I desire (pray) that you may hear this. Cic. Ut mihī aedēs aliquās condūcās volŏ, I wish that you would hire a house for me. Plaut. Senātus cēnsuerat, utī Aeduōs dēfenderet, the senate had decreed that he should defend the Aedui. Caes. Servīs imperat ut fīliam dēfendant, he commands his servants to defend his daughter. Cic. Tē hortor ut legās, I exhort you to read. Cic. Tē rogō ut eum juvēs, I ask you to aid him. Cic. Ā rēge petivērunt nē inimīcissimum suum sēcum habēret, they asked from the king that he would not keep his worst enemy with him. Nep.

Note.—Verbs of determining, deciding—statuō, cōnstituō, dēcernō, etc.—generally take the Subjunctive when a new subject is introduced, otherwise the Infinitive (533, I., 1):

Constituerat, ut tribunus quereretur, he had arranged that the tribune should enter the complaint. Sall. Senātus decrevit, darent operam consules, the senate decreed that the consules should attend to it. Sall. Manere decrevit, he decided to remain. Nep.

II. With verbs and expressions denoting Effort (striving for a purpose, attaining a purpose) or IMPULSE (urging to effort):²

Contendit ut vincat, he strives to conquer. Cic. Cūrāvī ut bene vīverem, I took care to lead a good life. Sen. Effect ut imperātor mitterētur, he caused a commander to be sent (attained his purpose). Nep. Movēmur ut bonī sīmus, we are influenced to be good. Cic.

Note 1.—Some verbs of endeavoring, striving, as conor, contendo, notor, studeo, and tento, generally take the Infinitive when no new subject is introduced; see 533:

Locum oppūgnāre contendit, he proceeds to storm the city. Caes. Tentābō dē hōc dīcere, I will attempt to speak of this. Quint.

Note 2.—Ut with the Subjunctive sometimes forms with faciō or agō, rarely with est, a circumlocution for the Indicative: faciō ut dīcam = dīcō; faciō ut scrībam = scrībō: Invītus faciō ut recorder, I unwillingly recall. Cic.

III. With verbs and expressions denoting Fear, Anxiety, Danger: 3

Timeō, ut labōrēs sustineās, I fear that you will not endure the labors. 4 Cic. Timēbam nē ēvenīrent ea, I feared that those things would happen. Cic. Vereor nē labōrem augeam, I fear that I shall increase the labor. 4 Cic. Perīculum est nē ille tē verbīs obruat, there is danger that he will overwhelm you with words. Cic.

Note 1.—By a difference of idiom, ut must here be rendered by that not, and $n\bar{e}$ by that or lest. The Latin treats the clause as a wish or purpose.

¹ As optō, postulō; cēnseō, dēcernō, statuō, cōnstituō, etc.; volŏ, mālō; admoneō, moneō, hortor; ōrō, rogō; imperō, praecipiō, etc.

² As ēnītor, contendō, studeō; cūrō, id agō, operam dō, etc.; faciō, efficiō, impetrō, cōnsequor, etc.; cōgō, impellō, moveō, etc.

³ As metuō, timeō, vereor; perīculum est, cūra est, etc.

⁴ The Subjunctive of Desire is manifest if we make the subordinate clause inde-

Note 2.—After verbs of fearing, $n\bar{e}$ $n\bar{o}n$ is sometimes used for ut—regularly so after negative clauses:

Vereor në non possit, I fear that he will not be able. Cic.

NOTE 3.—Verbs of FEARING admit the Infinitive in the same sense as in English:

Vereor laudare, I fear (hesitate) to praise.1 Cic.

- 499. Peculiarities.—Expressions of Purpose present the following peculiarities:
 - 1. Ut nē, rarely ut non, is sometimes used for nē:

Praedixit, ut në legatos dimitterent, he charged them not to (that they should not) release the delegates. Nep. Ut plura non dicam, not to say more (i. e., that I may not). Cic.

2. Ut is sometimes omitted, especially after volŏ, nōlō, mālō, faciō, and after verbs of directing, urging, etc. Nē is often omitted after cavě:

Tù velim sīs, I desire that you may be. Cic. Fāc habeās, see (make) that you have. Cic. Senātus dēcrēvit darent operam consules, the senate decreed that the consule should see to it. Sall. Cave faciās, beware of doing it, or see that you do not do it. Cic.

Note.—Clauses with ut or $n\bar{e}$ are sometimes inserted parenthetically in sentences:

Amīcos, optimam vītae, ut ita dīcam,2 suppellectilem, friends, the best treasure (furniture), so to speak, of life. Cic.

3. Clauses of Purpose sometimes pass into Substantive Clauses, which, like indeclinable nouns, are used in a variety of constructions:

Per eum stetit quominus dimicaretur,3 it was owing to him (stood through him) that the battle was not fought. Caes. Volo ut mihi respondeas,3 I wish that you would answer me. Cic. Fecit pacem his condicionibus, ne qui adficerentur exsilio,3 he made peace on these terms, that none should be punished with exile. Nep.

Note 1 .- For the Different Forms of Substantive Clauses, see 540.

NOTE 2.—Clauses with quōminus sometimes lose the original idea of Purpose and denote Result: 4

Non déterret sapientem mors quominus réi publicae consulat, death does not deter a wise man from deliberating for the republic. Clc.

pendent, as it was originally: Ifear, so may you endure the labors, an affirmative wish; Ifear, may I not increase the labor, a negative wish; hence $n\bar{\epsilon}$.

1 Compare vereor laudare, 'I fear to praise,' with vereor ne laudem, 'I fear that I shall praise.'

² The Subjunctive in this and similar clauses may be explained either as a Subjunctive of *Purpose* dependent upon a verb understood, or as a Subjunctive of *Desire*; see 483.

³ In the first example, the clause *quōminus dīmicārētur* has become apparently the subject of *stetit*; in the second, *ut mihī respondeūs*, the object of *volŏ*; and in the third, nē *quī adficerentur exsiliō*, an appositive to *condiciōnibus*.

⁴ Such a transition from Purpose, denoting an Intended Result, to a Simple Result is easy and natural.

III. SUBJUNCTIVE IN CLAUSES OF RESULT.

RULE XLIII.-Result.

500. The Subjunctive is used to denote Result'—

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, cur, etc.:

Non is sum quī (= ut ego) hīs ūtar, I am not such a one as to use these things. Cic. Innocentia est adfectio tālis animi, quae (= ut ea) noceat nēmini, innocence is such a state of mind as infures no one, or as to infure no one. Cic. Neque quisquam fuit ubī nostrum jūs obtinērēmus, nor was there any one with whom (where) we could obtain our right. Cic. Est vēro cūr quis Jūnomem laedere nolit, there is indeed a reason why (so that) one would be unwilling to offend Juno. Ovid.

II. With ut, ut non, quin:

Ita vixit ut Athēniēnsibus esset cārissimus, he so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians. Nep. Ita laudo, ut non pertimēscam, I so praise as not to fear. Cic. Ego in pūblicis causīs ita sum versātus ut dēfenderim multos, I have been so occupied in public suits that I have defended many. Cic. Nihil est tam difficile quīn (ut non) investīgārī possit, nothing is so difficult that it may not be investigated. Ter.

Note 1.— $Qu\bar{\imath}$ is often preceded by is, tālis, tantus, or some similar word; and ut, by ita, $s\bar{\imath}c$, tan, ade \bar{o} , tantopere, or some similar particle; see examples.

Note 2.—In Plautus and Terence ut sometimes accompanies quī:

Ita ut qui neget, so that he refuses. Ter.

Note 3.—For the Subjunctive denoting a result after quominus, see 499, 3, note 2.

- 501. Clauses of Result readily pass into Substantive Clauses, but they still retain the Subjunctive. Thus the Subjunctive is used—
 - I. In Subject Clauses. Thus-
- 1. With impersonal verbs signifying it happens, remains, follows, is lawful, is allowed, is distant, is, etc.: 2

Fit ut quisque delectetur, it happens that every one is delighted. Cic. Sequitur ut falsum sit, it follows that it is false. Cic. Restat ut doceam, it remains that I should show. Cic. Ex quo efficitur ut voluptas non sit summum bonum, from which it follows that pleasure is not the highest good. Cic.

2. With predicate nouns and adjectives:

Mös est ut nölint, it is their custom not to be willing (that they are unwilling). Cic. Pröximum est, ut doceam, the next point is, that I show. Cic. Nön est dubium quin beneficium sit, that it is a benefit, is not doubtful. Sen.

² As accidit, contingit, ēvenit, fit, restat, sequitur, licet, abest, est, etc. -

¹ The Subjunctive of *Result* is doubtless in origin a *Potential* Subjunctive: *Non is* $sum\ qu\bar{\imath}\ h\bar{\imath}s\ \bar{\imath}tar$, 'I am not one who would use (or is likely to use) these things.' Hence this Subjunctive takes the negative $n\bar{o}n\ (ut\ n\bar{o}n)$ like the *Potential* Subjunctive, while the Subjunctive of *Purpose* takes the negative $n\bar{e}$ like the Subjunctive of *Desire*.

Note.—For the Subjunctive with ut, with or without ne, in questions expressive of impatience or surprise, see 486, II., note.

II. In OBJECT CLAUSES. Thus-

1. In clauses introduced by ut after facio, efficio, of the action of irrational forces:

Sol efficit ut omnia floreant, the sun causes all things to bloom (i. e., produces that result). Cic. Splendor vester facit ut peccare sine periculo non possitis, your conspicuous position causes this result, that you can not err without peril. Cic. See 498, II.

2. In clauses introduced by quin after verbs of Doubting:

Non dubitābis quīn sint beātī, you will not doubt that they are happy. Cic.

III. In Clauses in Apposition with nouns or pronouns:

Habet hoe virtus ut delectet, virtue has this advantage, that it delights. Cic. Est hoe vitium, ut invidia gloriae comes sit, there is this fault, that envy is the companion of glory. Nep.

Note.—For the different forms of substantive clauses, see 540.

502. Peculiarities.—Expressions of Result-present the following peculiarities:

1. Ut is sometimes omitted—regularly with oportet, generally with opus est and necesse est:

Te oportet virtus trahat, it is necessary that virtue should attract you. Cic. Causam habeat necesse est, it is necessary that it should have a cause. Cic.

2. The Subjunctive occurs with quam—with or without ut:

Līberālius quam ut põsset, too freely to be able (more freely than so as to be able). Nep. Impōnēbat amplius quam ferre põssent, he imposed more than they were able to bear.

3. After tantum abest ut, denoting result, a second ut of result sometimes occurs:

Philosophia, tantum abest ut laudētur, ut etiam vituperētur, so far is it from the truth (so much is wanting) that philosophy is praised, that it is even censured. Cic.

503. In Relative Clauses, the Subjunctive of Result shows the following Special Constructions:

I. The Subjunctive is used in relative clauses to characterize an Indefinite or General Antecedent:

Quid est quod të delectare possit, what is there which can delight you? Cic. Nunc dicis aliquid quod ad rem pertineat, now you state something which belongs to the subject. Cic. Sunt qui putent, there are some who think. Cic. Nëmő est qui non cupiat, there is no one who does not desire. Cic.

¹ Here tam, tālis, or some such word, is often understood.

NOTE 1.—Restrictive clauses with quod, as quod eciam, 'as far as I know,' quod meminerim, 'as far as I remember,' etc., take the Subjunctive:

Non ego të, quod sciam, unquam ante hunc diem vidi, as far as I know, I have

never seen you before this day. Plaut.

Note 2.—Quod, or a relative particle, ubt, unde, quō, cūr, etc., with the Subjunctive, is used after est, 'there is reason'; nōn est, nihil est, 'there is no reason'; quid est, 'what reason is there?' nōn habeō, nihil habeō, 'I have no reason':

Est quod gaudeās, there is reason why you should rejoice, or so that you may. Plaut. Non est quod credās, there is no reason why you should believe. Sen. Nihil habeō, quod incusem senectutem, I have no reason why I should accuse old age. Cic. Quid est cur virtūs ipsa non efficiat beātōs, what reason is there why virtue itself should not make men happy? Cic.

Note 3.—The Indicative is freely used in relative clauses after indefinite antecedents:

1) In poetry 1 and late prose:

Sunt quos juvat, there are some whom it delights. Hor,

2) Even in the best prose, when the fact itself is to be made prominent:

Sunt qui non audent dicere, there are some who do not dare to speak. Cic. Multa sunt, quae dici possunt, there are many things which may be said. Cic.

- II. The Subjunctive is used in relative clauses-
- 1. After ūnus, solus, and the like :

Sapientia est una, quae maestitiam pellat, wisdom is the only thing which dispels sadness (which would dispel). Cic. Soli centum erant qui creari possent, there were only one hundred who could be appointed (such that they could be). Liv.

2. After dignus, indignus, idoneus, and aptus:

Fābulae dīgnae sunt, quae legantur, the fables are worthy to be read (that they should be read). Cic. Rūfum Caesar idōneum jūdicāverat quem mitteret, Caesar had judged Rufus a suitable person to send (whom he might send). Caes.

3. After comparatives with quam:

Damna mājōra sunt quam quae (= ut ea) aestimārī possint, the losses are too great to be estimated (greater than so that they can be). Liv.

504. Quīn,² 'who not,' 'that not,' etc., is often used to introduce a result after negatives and interrogatives implying a negative.³ Thus—

¹ Especially in early poetry, as in Plautus and Terence.

² Quin is a compound of the relative qui and nē, and appears to be used both as an indeclinable relative pronoun, who not, and as a relative particle, by which not, how not, etc. Some clauses with quin may perhaps be best explained as indirect questions (529, I.). Quin, meaning why not! often used in independent clauses, is a compound of the interrogative quis or qui, and nē: Quin tū hoc facis, 'why do you not do it?' Liv.

S As nëmö, nüllus, nihil, quis? nön dubitö, nön dubium est; nön multum abest, paulum abest, nihil abest, quid abest? nön, via, aegre abstineo; mihi non tempero; nön retineor; nön, nihil praetermittö; facere nön possum, fleri nön potest; nünquam with a large class of verbs.

 Quin is often used in the sense of qui non, quae non, etc., as after nomo, nullus, nihil, quis?

Adest němỗ, quin videat, there is no one present who does not see. Cic. Němỗ est quin audierit, there is no one who has not heard. Cic. Quis est quin cernat, who is there who does not perceive? Cic. Nůlla fuit cīvitās quin mitteret, there was no state which did not send. Cacs. Nůlla pictūra fuit quin $(=quam\ n\delta n)$ Inspexerit, there was no painting which he did not inspect. Cic. Nůllum intermisi diem, quin $(=qu\delta\ n\delta n\ or\ ut\ e\delta\ n\delta n)$ aliquid darem, $1\ allowed\ no\ day\ to\ pass\ without\ giving\ something\ (on\ which\ I\ would\ not\ give\ something). Cic.$

Note. -Quin can often be best rendered by but or by without or from with a participial noun in -ing; see the last example under 1; also the last under 2.

2. Quin is often used in the ordinary sense of ut non:

Nemo est tam fortis quin perturbetur, no one is so brave as not to be disturbed. Caes. Nihil est tam difficile quin investigari possit, nothing is so difficult that it may not be investigated. Ter. Retineri non poterant quin tela coicerent, they could not be restrained from hurling their weapons. Caes.

Note.—Is or id is sometimes expressed after $qu\bar{i}n$:

Nihil est quin id interest, there is nothing which does not perish. Cic.

- 3. $Qu\bar{\imath}n$ is used in the sense of $ut n\bar{\imath}n$ or of ut in subject and object clauses (501):
 - 1) With facere non possum, fieri non potest, etc., in the sense of ut non:

Focere non possum quin litteras mittam, I can not but send a letter. Cic. Effici non potest quin eos oderim, it can not be (be effected) that I should not hate them. Cic.

2) With negative expressions implying doubt and uncertainty, in the sense of ut:

Agamemnon non dubitat quin Troja sit peritura, Agamemnon does not doubt that Troy will fall (perish). Cic. Non dubitari debet quin fuerint poetae, it ought not to be doubted that there were poets. Cic. Quis Ignorat quin tria genera sint, who is ignorant that there are three races? Cic.

4. Quīn is sometimes used in the sense of quōminus:2

Quīn loquar haec, nūnquam mē potes dēterrēre, you can never deter me from saying this. Plaut. Non dēterret sapientem mors quominus rel pūblicae consulat, death does not deter a wise man from deliberating for the republic. Cic. Non recūsāvit, quominus poenam subīret, he did not refuse to submit to punishment. Nep. Neque recūsāre quīn armīs contendant, and that they do not refuse to contend in arms. Caes.

Note.—For non quin in Causal Clauses, see 516, 2.

Pronounced as if written cojicerent; see 36, 4, with foot-note 1.

² As after verbs of *hindering*, *refusing*, and the like. Observe that in the examples *dēterreō* and *recūsō* are used both with *quīn* and with *quōminus*. They also admit the Subjunctive with *nē* or the Infinitive; see 505, II,

- 505. Construction of Special Verbs.—Some verbs admit two or more different constructions. Thus—
 - I. Dubito admits-
- 1. Quin, WITH THE SUBJUNCTIVE, if it stands in a negative sentence; see 504, 3, 2).
 - 2. An Indirect Question (529, I.):

Non dubito quid putes, I do not doubt what you think. Cic. Dubito an ponam, I doubt whether I should not place. 1 Nep.

3. The Accusative with the Infinitive:

Quis dubitat patère Europam, who doubts that Europe is exposed? Curt.

4. The simple Infinitive, when it means to hesitate:

Non dubitem dicere, I should not hesitate to say. Cic. Dubitamus virtūtem extendere factīs, do we hesitate to extend our glory (valor) by our deeds? Verg.

- II. Verbs of hindering, opposing, refusing, and the like, admit-
- 1. The Subjunctive with ne, quin, or quominus: 2

Impedior në plūra dīcam, I am prevented from saying (that I may not say) more. Cic. Sententiam në dīceret recūsāvit, he refused to give an opinion. Cic. Neque recūsāre quīn armīs contendant, and that they do not refuse to contend in arms. Caes. Interclūdor dolore quōminus plūra scrībam, I am prevented by sorrow from writing more. Cic.

2. The Accusative with the Infinitive, or the simple Infinitive:

Num ignobilitäs sapientem beätum esse prohibebit, will obscurity prevent a wise man from being happy? Cic. Quae facere recusem, which I should refuse to do. Hor.

IV. Moods in Conditional Sentences.

506. Every conditional sentence consists of two distinct parts, expressed or understood—the *Condition* and the *Conclusion*:

Sī negem, mentiar, if I should deny it, I should speak falsely.3 Cic.

RULE XLIV.—Conditional Sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn.

507. Conditional sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn, take—

I. The Indicative in both clauses to assume the supposed case:

¹ That is, I am inclined to think that I should place. Observe that dubito an means 'I doubt whether not'='I am inclined to think,' and dubito num, 'I doubt whether': Dubito num debeam, 'I doubt whether I ought.' Plin.

² For the use of quin, see 504. Ne and quominus may follow either affirmatives or negatives.

³ Here sī negem is the condition, and mentiar, the conclusion.

Sī spīritum dūcit, vīvit, if he breathes, he is alive. Cic. Sī tot exempla virtūtis non movent, nihil unquam movēbit, if so many examples of valor do not move (you), nothing will ever move (you). Liv.

II. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as possible:

Diës deficiat, si velim causam defendere, the day would fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause. Cic. Improbe feceris, nisi monueris, you would do wrong, if you should not give warning. Cic.

III. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as *contrary to fact:*

Plūribus verbīs ad tē scrīberem, sī rēs verba dēsīderāret, I should write to you more fully (with more words), if the case required words. Cic. Sī voluisset, dīmicāsset, if he had wished, he would have fought. Nep.

1. Two clauses without any conjunction sometimes have the force of a conditional sentence:

Negat quis, negō, does any one deny, I deny. Ter. Rogēs mē, nihil respondeam, ask me, I shall make no reply. Cic. Tū māgnam partem, sineret dolor, habērēs, you would have had a large share, had grief permitted.¹ Verg. Lacesse; jam vidēbis furentem, provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him), you will at once see him frantic. Cic.²

2. A condition is sometimes introduced by the relative qui, quae, etc. = sī is, sī quis, sī quī, etc.:

Qui secum loqui poterit, sermonem alterius non requiret, if any one (lit., he who) shall be able to converse with himself, he will not need the conversation

¹ See 510, note 2.

² From these examples it is manifest that a conditional particle is not an essential part of a conditional sentence. Originally the two clauses, the condition and the conclusion, were independent, and the mood in each was determined by the ordinary principles which regulate the use of moods in principal clauses; see 483; 485. Hence the Indicative was used in treating of facts, and the Subjunctive or Imperative in all other cases. Si, probably the Locative case of a pronoun, meaning (1) at that time or in that manner, and (2) at any time or in any manner, has nothing whatever to do with the mood, but merely denotes that the conclusion is connected with the condition. Thus: negat, nego, 'he denies (i. e., assume that he denies), I deny'; sī negat, negō, 'he denies at some time, then I deny'; dies deficiat, si velim, etc., 'let me wish (Subjunctive of Desire) at any time, etc., then the day would fail me.' The Subjunctive in conditions is a Subjunctive of Desire with nearly the force of the Imperative, which may indeed be used for it when sī is omitted, as lacesse, 'provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him).' In conclusions the Subjunctive is generally potential, as dies deficiat, 'the day would fail,' but sometimes it is the Subjunctive of Desire, for which the Imperative may be substituted; as, peream, sī poterunt, 'may I perish if they shall be able'; sī peccāvī, īgnōsce, 'if I have erred, pardon me.' See Delbrück, 'Conjunctiv und Optativ,' pp. 70-74; 171-182.

of another. Cic. Errat longe, qui credat, etc., he greatly errs who supposes, etc. (i. e., if any one supposes, he greatly errs). Ter. Haec qui videat, nonne cogătur confiteri, etc., if any one should see these things, would he not be compelled to admit, etc.? Cic.

3. A condition is sometimes introduced by cum:

Ea cum dixissent, quid responderes, if (when) they had said that, what should you reply? Cic.

Note 1.—The condition is sometimes ironical, especially with $nisi\ v\bar{e}r\bar{o}, nisi\ forte,$ with the Indicative, and with $quasi, quasi\ v\bar{e}r\bar{o},$ with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive:

Nisi forte însănit, unless perhaps he is insane. Cic. Quasi vērō necesse sit, as if indeed it were necessary. Caes.

NOTE 2.—Ita-sī, 'so-if,' means only-if. Sī quidem, 'if indeed,' sometimes has nearly the force of since:

Hoc ita jūstum est, sī est voluntārium, this is just only if (on condition that) it is voluntary. Cic. Antīquissimum est genus poētārum, sī quidem Homērus fuit ante Romam conditam, the class of poets is very ancient, since Homer lived before the founding of Rome. Cic.

Note 3 .- Nisi or nī, 'if not,' is sometimes best rendered but or except:

Nescio, nisi hoc video, I know not, but (except that) I observe this. Cic.

Note 4 .- Nisi sī means except if, unless perhaps, unless:

Nisi sī quī scrīpsit, unless some one has written. Cic.

Note 5 .- For \$\vec{s}\vec{t}\$ to be rendered to see if, to see whether, etc., see 529, 1, note 1.

Note 6.-For quod sī, quod nī, quod nisi, see 453, 6.

Note 7.—The condition may be variously supplied, as by a participle, by the ablative absolute, or by the oblique case of a noun:

Non potestis, voluptăte omnia dirigentes (= sī dirigitis), retinere virtutem, you can not retain your manhood, if you arrange all things with reference to pleasure. Cic. Recte facto (= sī rēctē factum erit), laus proponitur, if it is (shall be) well done, praise is offered. Cic. Nemo sine spē (= nisi spem habēret) sō offerret ad mortem, no one without a hope (if he had not a hope) would expose himself to death. Cic.

Note 8 .- For Conditional Sentences in the Indirect Discourse, see 527.

508. First Form.—Conditional sentences with the *Indicative in both clauses*, assuming the supposed case as *real*, may base upon it any statement which would be admissible if the supposed case were a known fact:

Sī haec cīvitās est, cīvis sum ego, if this is a state, I am a citizen. Cic. Sī non licēbat, non necesse erat, if it was not lawful, it was not necessary. Cic. Sī vīs, dabō tibǐ testēs, if you wish, I will furnish you witnesses. Cic. Plūra scrībam, sī plūs otiī habuero, I will write more if I shall have (shall have had) more leisure. Cic. Dolorem sī non potero frangere, occultābo, if I shall not be able to overcome sorrow, I shall conceal it. Cic. Parvī sunt forīs arma, nisi est consilium domī, arms are of little value abroad, unless there is wisdom at home. Cic. Sī domī sum, etc.; sīn¹ forīs sum, etc., if I am at home, etc.; but if I am abroad, etc. Plaut. Nī putō, if I do not think. Cic.

¹ Sin from $s\bar{\imath}$ $n\bar{e}$, 'if not,' 'if on the contrary,' 'but if,' properly introduces a condition in contrast with another condition expressed or implied. Thus, $s\bar{\imath}n$ for $\bar{\imath}s$ is in contrast with $s\bar{\imath}$ dom $\bar{\imath}$, and means but if abroad.

1. The Condition is generally introduced, when affirmative, by $s\bar{t}$, with or without other particles, as quidem, modo, etc., and when negative, by $s\bar{t}$ $n\bar{o}n$, nisi, $n\bar{t}$.

The Time may be present, past, or future, but it need not be the same in both clauses. Thus the Present or the Future Perfect in the condition is often followed by

the Future, as in the third and fourth examples.1

3. Sī non and nisi are often used without any perceptible difference of meaning; but strictly sī non introduces the negative condition on which the conclusion depends, while nisi introduces a qualification or an exception. Thus, in the zzond example above, the meaning is, if it was not lawful, it follows that it was not necessary; while in the fourth the meaning is, arms are of little value abroad, except when there is wisdom at home.

4. The Conclusion irrespective of the condition may assume a considerable variety

of form. Thus:

Redargue më si mentior, refute me if I speak falsely. Cic. Moriar, ni putŏ, may I die, if I do not think. Cic. Quid timeam, si beätus futūrus sum, why should I fear if I am going to be happy? Cic. Si quid habës certius, velim 2 scīre, if you have any information (anything more certain), I should like to know it. Cic.

5. GENERAL TRUTHS may be expressed conditionally-

1) By the Indicative in both clauses, as in the sixth example under 508.

2) By the Second Person of the Subjunctive used of an indefinite you (= any one) in the condition, with the Indicative in the conclusion:

Memoria minuitur, nisi eam exerceās, the memory is impaired, if you do not (one does not) exercise it. Cic. Nūlla est excūsātio peccāti, sī amīcī causā peccāverīs, it is no excuse for a fault, that you have committed it for the sake of a friend. Cic.

509. Second Form.—Conditional sentences with the *Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses* represent the condition as *possible*:

Hace sī tēcum patria loquātur, nonne impetrāre dēbeat, if your country should speak thus with you, ought she not to obtain her request? Cic. Improbē fēcerīs, nisi monuerīs, you would do wrong, if you should not give warning. Cic. See also 507, II.

NOTE 1.—The Time denoted by these tenses, the *Present* and the *Perfect*, is generally either present or future, and the difference between the two is that the former regards the action in its *progress*, the latter in its *completion*. Thus, *loquatur*, 'should speak' (now or at any future time); so of *dēbeat*; but *fēcerīs*, though referring to the same time as *loquātur*, regards the action as *completed.*³

Note 2.—The *Present Subjunctive* is occasionally used in conditional sentences, even when the condition is in itself contrary to fact:

² Observe that in each of these examples the mood in the conclusion is entirely independent of the condition. Thus, redarque is a command; moriar, a prayer, Subjunctive of Desire; quid timeam, a deliberative question (484, V.); and velim, a Potential Subjunctive (486, note 1).

3 As the Present Subjunctive in point of time is very closely related to the Future Indicative in conditional sentences, so the Perfect Subjunctive is very closely related to the Future Perfect Indicative, though it may refer to past time.

¹ A conditional sentence with the Future Perfect in the condition and the Future in the conclusion, as plūra scrībam, sī plūrā stīī habverō, corresponds to the Greek with έάν or āν with the Aorist Subjunctive in the conclusion; as, νέος āν πονήσης, γῆρας ἔξεις εὐθαλές, if you will labor while young, you will have a prosperous old age.

Tu si hic sis, aliter sentias, if you were I (if you were in my place), you would think differently. Ter.

NOTE 3.—When dependent upon an historical tense, the Present and Perfect are of course generally changed to the Imperfect and Pluperfect, by the law for Sequence of Tenses (490):

Metuit ne, sī īret, retraheretur, he feared lest, if he should go, he would be brought back. Liv.

510. Third Form.—Conditional sentences with the *Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses* represent the supposed case as *contrary to fact*, and simply state what would have been the result if the condition had been fulfilled:

Sapientia non expeteretur, sī nihil efficeret, wisdom would not be sought (as it is), if it accomplished nothing. Cic. Sī optima tenere possēmus, haud sāne consilio egerēmus, if we were able to secure the highest good, we should not indeed need counsel. Cic. Sī voluisset, dīmicasset, if he had wished, he would have fought. Nep. Nūnquam abīsset, nisi sibǐ viam mūnīvisset, he would never have gone, if he had not prepared for himself a way. Cic. See also 507, III.

NOTE 1.—Here the *Imperfect* generally relates to present 1 time, as in the first and second examples; the *Pluperfect* to past time, as in the third and fourth examples.

NOTE 2.—The Imperfect sometimes relates to past time, especially when it expresses a continued action, or is accompanied by any word denoting past time:

Nec, sī cuperēs, tibi id facere licuisset, nor would you have been permitted to do it, if you had desired. Cic. Num Opimium, sī tum essēs, temerārium cīvem putārēs, would you have thought Opimius an audacious citizen if you had lived at that time? Cic.

- 511. A CONCLUSION of the FIRST FORM is sometimes combined with a CONDITION of the SECOND OF THIRD FORM. Thus—
- 1. The *Indicative* is often thus used in the conclusion (1) to denote a *general truth*, and (2) to emphasize a *fact*, especially with a condition introduced by nisi or $n\bar{\imath}$:²

Turpis excūsātiŏ est, sī quis fateātur, etc., it is a base excuse, if one admits, etc. Cic. Intrāre, sī possim, castra hostium volŏ, I wish to enter the camp of the enemy, if I am able. Liv. Certāmen aderat, nī Fabius rem expedīsset, a contest was at hand, but Fabius (lit., if Fabius had not) adjusted the affair.² Liv. Nec vēnī, nisi fāta locum dedissent, nor should I have come, had not the fates assigned the place.³ Verg.

¹ This use of the Imperfect to denote present time was developed from the ordinary force of the Subjunctive tenses. Thus the Present denotes that which is likely to be, the Imperfect that which was likely to be, and so by implication that which is not. Compare fuit in the sense of was, but is not, 471, 1, 2).

 $^{^2}$ Here the condition merely introduces a qualification or an exception; see 508, 3.

³ The force of the Indicative can not be easily shown in a translation, but the Latin conception is, *I have not come without the divine guidance* (expressed in the condition).

Note 1.—The $Future\ Indicative$ is sometimes used in the conclusion because of its near relationship in force to the Present Subjunctive: 1

Sī mittat, quid respondēbis, if he should send, what answer shall you give? Lucr. Nec sī cupiās, licēbit, nor, if you should desire it, will it be allowed. Cic.

NOTE 2.—In a negative conclusion with a negative condition, the verb possum is generally in the Indicative: 2

Neque amīcitiam tuērī possumus, nisi amīcēs dīligāmus, nor should we be able to preserve friendship, if we should not love our friends. Cic.

Note 3.—The Historical Tenses of verbs denoting Duty, Propriety, Necessity, Ability, and the like, in the conclusion of conditional sentences, are generally in the Indicative:

Quem, sī ūlla in tē pietās esset, colere dēbēbās, whom you ought to have honored (and would have honored), if there were any tilial affection in you. Cie. Vix castra, sī oppūgnārētur, tūtārī poterat, he was hardly able to defend the camp, if he should be attacked. Liv. Dēlērī exercitus potuit, sī persecūtī vīctōrēs essent, the army might have been destroyed (and would have been), if the victors had pursued. Liv.

Note 4.—The Historical Tenses of the Indicative of still other verbs are sometimes similarly used when accompanied by pagne or prope:

Pons iter paene hostibus dedit, ni unus vir fuisset, the bridge almost furnished a passage to the enemy (and would have furnished it), had there not been one man. Liv.

2. The Periphrastic Forms in rus and dus in the conclusion of conditional sentences are generally in the Indicative: 3

Quid sī hostēs veniant, factūrī estis, what shall you do if the enemy should come? Liv. Sī quaerātur, indicandum est, if inquiry should be made, information must be given. Cic. Relictūrī agrōs erant, nisi lītterās mīsisset, they would have left their lands, had he not sent a letter. Cic. Quid futūrum fuit, sī plēbs agitārī coepta esset, what would have been the result, if the plebeians had begun to be agitated? Liv. Sī vērum respondēre vellēs, haee erat dīcenda, if you wished to answer truly, this should have been said. Cic. Sī morātī essētis, moriendum omnibus fuit, if you had delayed, you must all have perished. Liv.

Note.—When the Perfect Indicative in the conclusion with the Subjunctive in the condition is brought into a construction which requires the Subjunctive, the tense remains unchanged, irrespective of the tense of the principal verb:

Adeo est inopia coactus ut, nisi timuisset, Galliam repetiturus fuerit,5 he was so

¹ See 479, with foot-note 3. A conditional sentence with the Present Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion, corresponds to the Greek ἐάν with the Present Subjunctive in the condition, and the Future Indicative in the conclusion: τοῦτο ἐάν σκοπῆτε, εὐρήσετε, if you examine this, you will find.

² Here, too, the use of the Indicative grows out of the relationship between the meaning of possum, denoting ability, and that of the Potential Subjunctive denoting possibility.

³ The Indicative is here explained by the close relationship between the ordinary meaning of the Subjunctive, and that of the forms in *rus* and *dus* denoting that something is about to be done or ought to be done.

⁴ Lit., were about to leave, and so would have left, had he not, etc.

⁵ Here $repetit\bar{u}rus$ fuerit is in the Subjunctive, not because it is in a conditional sentence, but because it is the Subjunctive of Result with ut; but it is in the Perfect, because, if it were not dependent, the Perfect Indicative would have been used.

pressed by want that, if he had not feared, he would have returned to Gaul. Liv. Haud dubium fuit, quin nisi firmata extrema agminis fuissent, ingens accipienda clades fuert, there was no doubt that, had not the rear of the line been made strong, a great disaster must have been sustained. Liv. Quaeris quid potuerit amplius assequi, sī Scīplonis fuisset filius, you ask what more he could have attained, if he had been the son of Scipto. Cic.

512. A Conclusion of the Third Form (510) is sometimes combined with a Condition of the Second Form (509):

SI tecum loquantur, quid responderes, if they should speak with you, what answer would you give ? Cic.

RULE XLV.—Conditional Clauses with dum, modo, ac si, ut sī. etc.

513. Conditional clauses take the Subjunctive-

I. With dum, modo, dummodo, 'if only,' 'provided that'; dum nē, modo nē, dummodo nē, 'if only not,' 'provided that not': 2

Manent ingenia, modo permaneat industria, mental powers remain, if only industry remains. Cic. Dum res maneant, verba fingant, let them make words, if only the facts remain. Cic. Dummodo repellat periculum, provided he may avert danger. Cic. Dum ne tibi videar, nen laboro, provided I do not seem so to you, I do not care. Cic.

II. With āc sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tanquam, tanquam sī, velut, velut sī, 'as if,' 'than if,' involving an ellipsis of the real conclusion:

Perinde habēbō, āc sī scrīpsissēs, I shall regard it just as if (i. e., as I should if) you had written. Cic. Jacent, tanquam omnīnō sine animō sint, they lie as if (i. e., as they would lie if) they were entirely without mind. Cic. Quam sī vixerit tēcum, as if he had lived with you. Cic. Miserior es, quam sī oculōs nōn habērēs, you are more unhappy than (you would be) if you had not eyes. Cic. Crūdēlitātem, velut sī adesset, horrēbant, they shuddered at his cruelty as (they would) if he were present. Caes. Ut sī in suam rem aliēna convertant, as if they should appropriate others' possessions to their own use. Cic. Tanquam audiant, as if they may hear. Sen.

Note 1.—In this form of conditional sentences, the Present 3 or Imperfect is used of present time, and the Perfect 3 or Pluperfect of past time; see examples above.

¹ When not used in conditions, these conjunctions often admit the Indicative: Dum leges vigebant, while the laws were in force. Cic.

³ The English idiom would lead us to expect only the *Imperfect* and *Pluperfect*, as under 510; but the Latin often regards the condition as possible, and thus uses the

Present and Perfect, as under 509.

² This Subjunctive is best explained as the Subjunctive of Desire, as indicated by the negative $n\bar{e}$ (483, 3). Thus, modo permaneat industria, 'only let industry remain'; dum $n\bar{e}$ tibl videar, 'let me not meanwhile seem so to you.' After dum and dummodo the Subjunctive may perhaps be explained as Potential, but the negative $n\bar{e}$ renders such an explanation very doubtful.

Note 2.—Ceu and sīcuti are sometimes used like āc sī, ut sī, etc.:

Ceu bella forent, as if there were wars. Verg. Sicuti audīrī possent, as if they could be heard. Sall.

V. Moods in Concessive Clauses.

514. A concessive clause is one which concedes or admits something, generally introduced in English by though or although:

Quamquam itinere fessi erant, tamen procedunt, although they were weary with the journey, they still (yet) advanced. Sall.

Note.—The concessive particle is sometimes omitted:

Sed habeat, tamen, etc., but grant that he has it, yet, etc. Cic.

RULE XLVI.-Moods in Concessive Clauses.

515. Concessive clauses take-

I. Generally the *Indicative* in the best prose, when introduced by *quamquam*:

Quamquam intellegunt, tamen nunquam dicunt, though they understand, they never speak. Cic. Quamquam festinas, non est mora longa, though you are in haste, the delay is not long. Hor.

II. The *Indicative* or *Subjunctive*, when introduced by *etsī*, *etiamsī*, *tametsī*, or *sī*, like conditional clauses with *sī*. Thus—

1. The Indicative is used to represent the supposed case as a fact:

Gaudeō, etsī nihil sciò quod gaudeam, I rejoice, though I know no reason why I should rejoice. Plaut.

2. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive, to represent the supposed case as possible:

Etsī nihil habeat in sē glōria, tamen virtūtem sequitur, though glory may not possess anything in itself, yet it follows virtue. Cic.

3. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive, to represent the supposed case as contrary to fact:

Etiamsī mors oppetenda esset, domī māllem, even if death ought to be met, I should prefer to meet it at home. Cic.

III. The Subjunctive, when introduced by licet, quamvīs, ut, $n\bar{e}$, cum, or the relative $qu\bar{\imath}$:

¹ Concessive clauses bear a close resemblance to conditional clauses both in form and in use. Sī optimum est, 'if it is best,' is a condition; etsī optimum est, 'even if (or though) it is best,' is a concession; the one assumes a supposed case, the other admits it. The Subjunctive in concessive clauses is in general best explained in the same way as in conditional clauses; see 507, 1, foot-note 2.

² In origin licet is simply the impersonal verb of the same form, and the Subjunctive

Licet irrīdeat, plūs tamen ratiŏ valēbit, though he may deride, reason will yet avail more. Cic. Non tū possīs, quamvīs excellās, you would not be able, although you excel. Cic. Ut dēsint vīrēs, tamen est laudanda voluntās, though the strength fails, still the will should be approved. Ovid. Nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est, though pain may not be the greatest evil, it is certainly an evil. Cic. Cum domī dīvitiae adfluerent, fuēre tamen cīvēs, etc., though wealth abounded at home, there were yet citizens, etc. Sall. Absolvite Verrem, quī (cum is) sē fateātur pecūniās cēpisse, acquit Verres, though he confesses (who may confess) that he has accepted money. Cic.

Note 1 .- Quamquam takes the Subjunctive-

1) When the thought, irrespective of the concessive character of the clause, requires that mood:

Quamquam epulis careat senectus, though old age may be without its feasts. Cic.

2) Sometimes, even in the best prose, apparently without any special reason:

Quamquam në id quidem suspīcionem habuerit, though not even that gave rise to any suspicion. Cic.

In poetry and in late prose, the Subjunctive with quamquam is not uncommon.
 In Tacitus it is the prevailing construction:

Quamquam invicti essent, although they were invincible. Verg. Quamquam plerique ad senectam pervenirent, although very many reached old age. Tac.

Note 2.—Quamquam and etsī sometimes have the force of yet, but yet, and yet:

Quamquam quid loquor, and yet why do I speak? Cic. Etsī tibi assentior, and yet
I assent to you. Cic.

Note 3.—Quamvis in the best prose takes the Subjunctive almost without exception, generally also in Livy and Nepos; but in poetry and in late prose it often admits the Indicative:

Erat dignităte regiă, quamvis cărebat nomine, he was of royal dignity, though he was without the name. Nep.

Note 4.— $Qu\bar{\iota}$ and cum, used concessively, generally take the Indicative in Plantus and Terence, and sometimes even in classical prose:

Audēs praedicāre id, domī tē esse nunc quī hīc ades, do you dare to assert this, that you are now at home, although you are here present? Plaut. Cum tabulās emunt, tamen nequeunt, though they purchase paintings, they are yet unable. Sall. Cum Sicilia vexāta est, tamen, though Sicily was disturbed, yet. Cic.

Note 5.—Ut—sīc, or ut—ita, 'though—yet' (lit., 'as—so'), involving comparison rather than concession, does not require the Subjunctive:

Ut a proclis quietem habuerant, ita non cessaverant ab opere, though (lit., as) they had had rest from battles, yet (lit., so) they had not ceased from work. Liv.

Note 6.—Quanvis and quantumvis, meaning 'as much as you please,' 'however

much, may accompany licet with the Subjunctive:

Non possis tu, quantumvis licet excellas, you rould not be able, however much you

Non possis tu, quantumvis licet excellas, you would not be able, however much you may excel. Cic.

clause which follows, developed from Result (501, I.), is its subject. Thus, in licet irrīdeat (itt., 'that he may deride is allowed'), irrīdeat is according to the Latin conception the subject of licet. Quam-vīs, compounded of quam, 'as,' and vīs, 'you wish,' means as you wish; thus, quamvīs excellās means literally excel as you wish (i. e., as much as you please). The Subjunctive with quamvīs, ut, nē, and quī, is the Subjunctive of Desire; that with cum was developed from the temporal clause; see 521.

VI. Moods in Causal Clauses.

RULE XLVII.-Moods with quod, quia, quoniam, quando.1

516. Causal clauses with quod, quia, quoniam, quando, generally take—

I. The Indicative to assign a reason positively, on one's own authority:

Quoniam supplicătiŏ decreta est, celebratote illos dies, since a thanks-giving has been decreed, celebrate those days. Cic. Gaude quod spectant te, rejoice that (because) they behold you. Hor.

II. The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority:

Sōcratēs accūsātus est, quod corrumperet juventūtem, Socrates was accused, because (on the alleged ground that) he corrupted the youth. Quint. Aristīdēs nōnne expulsus est patriā, quod jūstus esset, was not Aristīdes banished because (on the alleged ground that) he was just? Cic.

1. By a special construction, the verb introducing a reason on another's authority is sometimes put in the Infinitive, depending upon a verb of saying or thinking in the Subjunctive:

Quod se bellum gesturos dicerent (= quod bellum gesturi essent, ut dicebant), because they were about, as they said, to wage war. Caes.

Note.—In the same way the Subjunctive of a verb of saying or thinking may be used in a relative clause to introduce the sentiment of another person:

Ementiendo quae se audisse dicerent, by reporting falsely what they had heard (what they said they had heard). Sall.

2. Non Quo etc.—Non quō, nōn quod, nōn quōn, rarely nōn quia, also quam quod, etc., are used with the Subjunctive to denote an alleged reason in distinction from the true reason:

Non quo haberem quod scriberem, not because (that) I had anything to write. Cic. Non quod doleant, not because they are pained. Cic. Quia ne-

¹ Quod and Quia are in origin relative pronouns in the neuter. Thus: $gaud\bar{e}$ quod spectant $\ell\bar{e}$, rejoice that (as to that) they behold you.' Quoniam = quom-jam, 'when now,' and $quand\bar{o} = quam$ - $d\bar{o}$ ($d\bar{o} = di\bar{e}$), 'on which day,' 'when.' $D\bar{o}$ is probably from the same root as dum; see p. 145, foot-note 1.

² Observe that causal clauses with the Indicative state a fact, and at the same time present that fact as a reason or cause, as in the first example, but that causal clauses with the Subjunctive simply assign a reason without asserting any fact. Thus, in the examples under II., quod corrumperet juventūtem does not state that Socrates corrupted the youth, but simply indicates the charge made against him; nor does quod jūstus esset state that Aristides was just, but simply indicates the alleged ground of his banishment. For the development of the Subjunctive in causal clauses, see p. 267, foot-note 3.

quiverat quam quod ignoraret, because he had been unable, rather than because he did not know. Liv.

Note,—Clauses with quod sometimes stand at the beginning of sentences to announce the subject of remark:

Quod me Agamemnonem aemulārī putās, falleris, in thinking (as to the fact that you think) that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken. Nep.

RULE XLVIII .- Causal Clauses with cum and qui.

517. Causal clauses with cum and $qu\bar{\imath}$ generally take the Subjunctive, in writers of the best period:

Necesse est, cum sint dif, animantes esse, since there are gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings. Cic. Cum vīta metūs plēna sit, since life is full of fear. Cic. Quae cum ita sint, perge, since these things are so, proceed. Cic. Ō vīs vēritātis, quae (cum ea) sē dēfendat, O the force of truth, since it defends itself. Cic. Ō fortūnāte adulēscēns, quī (cum tū) tuae virtūtis Homērum praeconem invēneris, O fortunate youth, since you (lit., who) have obtained Homer as the herald of your valor. Cic.

1. In early Latin, especially in Plautus and Terence, the Indicative is the prevailing mood in causal clauses with cum and $qu\bar{\imath}$, though the Subjunctive is not uncommon with $qu\bar{\imath}$:

Quom² facere officium seïs tuum, since you know how to do your duty. Plaut. Quom hoe non possum, since I have not this power. Ter. Qui advenīstī, since you have come. Plaut. Tuās quī virtūtēs sciam, since I know your virtues. Plaut. Quī nēminem videam, since I see no one. Ter.

2. Clauses with either cum or quī admit the Indicative in all writers, when the statement is viewed as a fact:

Habeō senectūtī grātiam, quae mihř sermōnis aviditātem auxit, I cherish gratitude to old age, which has increased my love of conversation. Cic. Grātu-

¹ Clauses with cum, whether causal or temporal, illustrate the gradual extension of the use of the Subjunctive in subordinate clauses. Originally they took the Indicative, unless the thought irrespective of the causal or temporal character of the clause required the Subjunctive. Thus the Ciceronian sentence, Necesse est, cum sint div, animantes esse, 'since there are gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings,' would in early Latin have been, Necesse est, cum sunt diī, animantēs esse, and would have contained two distinct statements, viz., there are gods, and it is necessary that there should be living beings. But in time the causal clause lost so much of its original force as a separate statement, and became so entirely dependent upon the principal clause, as to be little more than an adverbial modifier of the latter, like the Ablative of Cause (413) in a simple sentence. The causal clause then took the Subjunctive, and the sentence as a whole made but one distinct statement, which may be approximately rendered, in view of (because of) the existence of the gods, it is necessary that there should be living beings. In the same way, temporal clauses with cum sometimes became little more than adverbial modifiers of the principal verb; see 521, II., 1, with foot-note, and 521, II., 2, with foot-note. For a special treatment of these clauses, see Hoffmann, 'Die Con struction der lateinischen Zeitpartikeln,' and Lübbert, 'Die Syntax von Quom.' 2 See 311, 1, with foot-note 4,

lor tibi, cum tantum valēs, I congratulate you that (in view of the fact that) you have so great influence. Cic.

3. When a conjunction accompanies the relative, the mood varies with the conjunction. Thus—

1) The Subjunctive is generally used with cum, quippe, ut, utpote:

Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. Quippe qui blandiatur, since he flatters (as one who flatters). Cic. Ut qui coloni essent, since they were colonists. Cic.

Note.—But the Indicative is sometimes used to give prominence to the fact. In Sallust the Indicative is the regular construction after quippe:

Quippe qui regnum invaserat, as he had laid hold of the kingdom. Sall.

2) The Indicative is generally used with quia, quoniam:

Quae quia certa esse non possunt, since these things can not be sure. Cic. Qui quoniam intellegi noluit, since he did not wish to be understood. Cic.

VII. Moods in Temporal Clauses.1

RULE XLIX.-Temporal Clauses with postquam, etc.

518. In temporal clauses with postquam, posteāquam, ubī, ut, simul atque, etc., 'after,' 'when,' 'as soon as,' the Indicative is used:

Postquam vīdit, etc., castra posuit, he pitched his camp, after he saw, etc. Caes. Ubi certiōrēs factī sunt, when they were informed. Caes. Id ut audīvit, as he heard this. Nep. Postquam vident, after they saw.² Sall. Postquam nox aderat, when night was at hand. Sall.

Note 1.—The tense in these clauses is generally the Perfect or the Historical Present, but sometimes the Descriptive Imperfect; 4 see examples above; also 471, 4.

Note 2.—The Pluperfect Indicative is sometimes used—
1) Especially to denote the *result* of a completed action:

Posteāquam consul fuerat, after he had been consul. Cic. Anno tertid postquam profugerat, in the third year after he had fled. Nep.

2) To denote repeated action: 6

Ut quisque vēnerat, solēbat, etc., as each one came (lit., had come), he was wont, etc. Cic.

Note 3.—Postrīdiē quam is used like postquam:

Postridië quam tu es profectus, on the day after you started. Cic.

.1. In Livy and the late historians, the Pluperfect or Imperfect Subjunctive is often used to denote repeated action: 6.

¹ On Temporal Clauses, see Hoffmann, 'Die Construction der lateinischen Zeitpartikeln,' and Lübbert, 'Die Syntax von Quom.'

² Or post quam and posteā quam.

³ See 467, III., with 1.

⁴ See 469, I.

⁵ And was accordingly at the time a man of consular rank.

⁶ In this case the Imperfect Indicative is generally used in the principal clause, as in the example here given,

Id ubi dixisset, hastam mittebat, whenever he had said that, he hurled (was wont to hurl) a spear. Liv.

Note.—As a rare exception, the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive occur after postquam or posteāquam: 1

Posteaquam aedificasset classes, after he had built fleets. Cic.

2. When the verb is in the second person singular to denote an indefinite subject, you = any one, one, the Subjunctive is generally used in temporal clauses:

Nõlunt ubǐ vells, ubǐ nõlīs cupiunt, they are unwilling when you wish it (when one wishes it), when you are unwilling they desire it. Ter. Priusquam incipiās, consulto opus est, before you begin, there is need of deliberation. Sall.

RULE L.—Temporal Clauses with dum, etc.²

519. I. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of while, as long as, take the *Indicative*:

Haec fēcī, dum lieuit, I did this while it was allowed. Cic. Quoad vīxit, as long as he lived. Nep. Dum lēgēs vigēbant, as long as the laws were in force. Cic. Dōnec eris fēlīx, as long as you shall be prosperous. Ov. Quamdiū in provinciā fuērunt, as long as they were in the province. Cic.

- II. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of until, take—
- 1. The *Indicative*, when the action is viewed as an ACTUAL FACT:

Dēlīberā hoc, dum ego redeo, consider this until I return. Ter. Donec rediit, until he returned. Liv. Quoad renuntiātum est, until it was (actually) announced. Nep.

2. The *Subjunctive*, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Differant, dum defervescat īra, let them defer it till their anger cools (i. e., that it may cool). Cic. Exspectes dum decat, you are waiting till he speaks (i. e., that he may speak). Cic. Ea continebis quoad te videam, you will keep them till I see you. Cic.

Note 1.—In the poets and the historians, dum is sometimes used with the Imperfect Subjunctive, and $d\bar{o}nec$ with the Imperfect and Pluperfect, like cum in narration:

Dum ea gererentur, bellum concitur, while these things were in progress (were done), a war was commenced. Liv. Nihil trepidābant donec ponte agerentur, they did not fear at all while they were driven on the bridge. Liv. Donec missī essent, until they had been sent. Liv.

NOTE 2.-Donec, in Tacitus, generally takes the Subjunctive:

¹ But the text in these cases is somewhat uncertain.

² See p. 291, foot-note 1.

³ See p. 295, foot-note 1.

Rnenus servat violentiam cursus, donec Oceano miscentur, the Rhine preserves the rapidity of its current till it mingles with the ocean. Tac.

RULE LI.—Temporal Clauses with antequam and priusquam.

520. In temporal clauses with antequam and priusquam 1—

- I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put—
- 1. In the *Indicative*, when the action is viewed as an ACTUAL FACT:

Priusquam lūcet, adsunt, they are present before it is light. Cic. Antequam in Siciliam vēnī, before I came into Sicily. Cic. Antequam cōgnō-verō, before I shall have ascertained. Cic. Nec prius respēxī quam vēnimus, nor did I look back until we arrived. Verg.

2. In the *Subjunctive*, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Antequam de re publica dicam, exponam consilium, I will set forth my plan before I (can) speak of the republic (i. e., preparatory to speaking of the republic). Cic. Non prius duces dimittunt, quam ist concessum, they did not dismiss the leaders till it was granted. Caes. Priusquam incipias, consulto opus est, before you begin there is need of deliberation (i. e., as preparatory to beginning). Sall. Tempestas minatur, antequam surgat, the tempest threatens, before it rises. Sen. Collem, priusquam sentiatur, communit, he fortified the hill before it was (could be) perceived. Caes.

II. The Imperfect and the Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive:

² The Future is used only in early Latin, as in Plautus and Cato.

6 Potential Subjunctive; see 486, III.

¹ Often written ante quam and prius quam, sometimes with intervening words between ante or prius and quam. See also p. 291, foot-note 1.

Remember that the Future is supplied in the Subjunctive by the Present; see 496.

⁴ Here the temporal clause involves purpose as well as time. Antequam dicam is nearly equivalent to ut posteā dicam: 'I will set forth my views, that I may afterward speak of the republic.'

⁵ Remember also that in temporal clauses the second person singular with an indefinite subject, you = any one, one, is generally in the Subjunctive; see 518, 2.

⁷ The Subjunctive in the Imperfect and Pluperfect tenses is not always to be referred to the same principle. Sometimes, like the Subjunctive after *dum*, it is best explained as the *Subjunctive of Purpose*, as in the first example, and sometimes like the Subjunctive of the historical tenses after *cum*; see p. 295, foot-note 1.

Non prius egressus est quam rex eum in fidem reciperet, he did not withdraw until the king took him under his protection. Nep. Priusquam peteret consulatum, insanit, he was insane before he sought the consulship. Liv. Prius visus est Caesar, quam fama perferretur, Caesar appeared before any tidings were brought. Caes. Antequam urbem caperent, before they took the city. Liv. Priusquam de meo adventu audire potuissent, in Macedoniam perrexi, before they were able to hear of my approach, I went into Macedonia. Cic. Paucis ante diebus, quam Syracusae caperentur, a few days before Syracuse was taken. Liv.

NOTE 1.—When the principal clause is negative and contains an historical tense, the temporal clause generally takes the Perfect Indicative, as in the last example under I., 1; but it sometimes takes the Subjunctive, as in the first example under II.

Note 2.—Pridie quam takes the same moods as priusquam:

Pridiö quam scripsī, the day before I wrote. Cic. Pridiö quam periret, somniāvit, he had a dream on the day before he died. Suet.

NOTE 3.—For the Subjunctive of the second person with an indefinite subject, see 518.2.

RULE LII.-Temporal Clauses with cum.

521. In temporal clauses with cum '-

I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put in the *Indicative*:

Cum verba faciunt, mājōrēs suōs extollunt, when they speak, they extol their ancestors. Sall. Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are silent they approve. Cic. Librōs, cum est ōtium, legere soleō, when there is teisure, I am wont to read books. Cic. Ad tē scrībam, cum plūs ōtiī nactus erō, I shall write to you when I shall have obtained more leisure. Cic. Omnia sunt incerta cum ā jūre discēssum est, all things are uncertain when one has departed from the right.² Cic.

II. The Imperfect and the Pluperfect are put—

1. In the *Indicative*, when the temporal clause asserts an historical fact:

Pāruit cum necesse erat, he obeyed when it was necessary. Cic. Nondum profectus erat, cum haec gerēbantur, he had not yet started when these things took place. Liv. Tum cum rēs māgnās permultī āmīserant, Rōmae fidēs concidit, then, when many had lost great fortunes, credit fell at Rome. Cic. Cum quaepiam cohors impetum fēcerat, hostēs refugiēbant, whenever any cohort made (had made) an attack, the enemy retreated. Caes.

 $^{^{1}}$ See p. 290, foot-note 1, with the works of Hoffmann and Lübbert there mentioned.

Discessum est is an Impersonal Passive, a departure has been made; see 301, 1.
Here the temporal clause not only defines the time of pāruit, but also makes a distinct and separate statement, viz., it was necessary; see p. 295, foot-note 1; also, p. 290, foot-note 1.

2. In the *Subjunctive*, when the temporal clause simply defines the time of the principal action:

Cum epistulam complicărem, tabellării vēnērunt, while I was folding the letter (i. e., during the act), the postmen came.¹ Cic. Cum ex Aegyptō reverterētur, dēcēssit, he died while he was returning (during his return) from Egypt. Nep. Cum dīmicāret, occīsus est, when he engaged in battle, he was slain. Nep. Zēnōnem, cum Athēnīs essem, audiēbam frequenter, I often heard Zeno when I was at Athens. Cic. Cum trīduī viam perfēcisset, nūntiātum est, etc., when he had accomplished a journey of three days, it was announced, etc. Caes. Caesarī cum id nūntiātum esset, matūrat ab urbe proficiscī, when this was (had been) announced to Caesar, he hastened to set out from the city. Caes.

1) Cum with the force of a relative after tempus, aetās, and the like, takes-

(1) Sometimes the Indicative, to state a fact:

Fuit tempus, cum homines vagabantur, there was a time when men led a wandering life. Cic.

Note.—Cum is sometimes thus used without tempus, etc.:

Fuit cum hoc dīcī poterat, there was a time when this could be said. Liv.

(2) Generally the Subjunctive, to characterize the period:2

Id saeculum cum plēna Graecia poētārum esset, that age when (such that) Greece was full of poets. Cic. Erit tempus, cum dēsīderēs, the time will come, when you will desire. Cic.

Note 1.—Cum is sometimes thus used without tempus, etc.:

Fuit cum arbitrarer, there was a time when I thought. Cic.

NOTE 2.—Meminī cum, 'I remember when,' generally takes the Indicative, but audio cum, video cum, and animadverto cum, generally the Subjunctive:

Memini cum mihi desipere videbare, I remember when you seemed to me to be unwise. Cic. Audivi cum dicerct, I heard him say (lit., when he said). Cic.

2) Cum, meaning from the time when, since, takes the Indicative:

Centum annī sunt, cum dictātor fuit, it is one hundred years since he was dictator. Cic.

Note 1.—Cum...tum, in the sense of 'not only ... but also,' 'both ... and,' generally takes the *Indicative* in both clauses, but in the sense of 'though ... yet,' the Subjunctive in the first clause and the *Indicative* in the second:

Cum anteā distinēbar, tum hōc tempore distineor, not only was I occupied before,

¹ In the Imperfect and Pluperfect tenses the choice of mood often depends not so much upon the nature of the thought, as upon the intention and feeling of the writer at the moment. If he wishes to assert that the action of the temporal clause is an historical fact, he uses the Indicative; but if he introduces it for the sole purpose of defining the time of the principal action, he uses the Subjunctive. Thus, cum epistulam complicarem does not assert that I folded the letter, but, assuming that as admitted, it makes use of it in defining the time of vēnērunt. See also foot-note under 1 above; also p. 290, foot-note 1.

² Like the Subjunctive in relative clauses after indefinite antecedents; see 503, I.

but I am also occupied now. Cic. Quae cum sint gravia, tum illud acerbissimum est, though these things are severe, that is the most grievous. Cic.

Note 2.—For cum in Causal clauses, see 517.

Note 3 .- For cum in Concessive clauses, see 515, III.

VIII. Indirect Discourse—Ōrātiŏ Oblīqua.

Moods and Tenses in Indirect Discourse.

522. When a writer or speaker expresses thoughts, whether his own or those of another, in any other form than in the original words of the author, he is said to use the Indirect Discourse— $\bar{O}r\tilde{a}$ -tiŏ Obliqua:

Platonem ferunt in Ĭtaliam vēnisse, they say that Plato came into Italy. Cic. Respondeotē dolorem ferre moderātē, I reply that you bear the affliction with moderation. Cic. Ūtilem arbitror esse scientiam, I think that knowledge is useful. Cic.

1. In distinction from the Indirect Discourse— $\bar{O}r\bar{a}ti\delta~Obliqua$, the original words of the author are said to be in the Direct Discourse— $\bar{O}r\bar{a}ti\delta~R\bar{c}cta$.

2. Words quoted without change belong to the DIRECT DISCOURSE:

Rex 'duumviros' inquit 'secundum legem facio,' the king said, 'I appoint duumvirs according to law.' Liv.

RULE LIII.-Moods in Principal Clauses.

- 523. The principal clauses of the Direct Discourse on becoming Indirect take the *Infinitive* or *Subjunctive* as follows:
- I. When Declarative, they take the *Infinitive with a Subject Accusative*.

Dīcēbat animōs esse dīvīnōs, he was wont to say that souls are divine. Cic. Platōnem Tarentum vēnisse reperiō, I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cic. Catŏ mīrārī sē āiēbat, Cato was wont to say that he wondered. Cic. Hippiās glōriātus est, annulum sē suā manū cōnfēcisse,² Hippias boasted that he had made the ring with his own hand. Cic.

Note.—The verb on which the Infinitive depends is often omitted, or only implied in some preceding verb or expression; especially after the Subjunctive of Purpose:

¹ Thus, in the first example, Platōnem in Ĭtaliam vēnisse is in the indirect discourse; in the direct, i. e., in the original words of those who made the statement, it would be: Platō in Ĭtaliam vēnit.

² In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) animī sunt dīvīnī, (2) Platō Tarentum vēnit, (3) mīror, and (4) annulum meā manū cōnfēcī. Observe that the pronominal subjects implied in mīror and cōnfēcī are expressed with the Infinitive, as mīrārī sē, sē cōnfēcīsse. But the subject is sometimes omitted when it can be readily supplied; see second example under II., 2, below.

Pythia praecepit ut Miltiadem imperatorem sumerent; incepta prospera futura, Pythia commanded that they should take Miltiades as their commander, (telling them) that their efforts would be successful. Nep.

II. When Interrogative, they take—

1. Generally the Subjunctive:

Ad postulāta Caesaris respondit, quid sibĭ vellet, cūr venīret,¹ to the demands of Caesar he replied, what did he wish, why did he come? Caes.

Note.—Deliberative questions retain the Subjunctive from the direct discourse:

In spem venerat se posse, etc.; cur fortunam periclituretur, he hoped (had come into hope) that he was able, etc.; why should he try fortune? Caes.

2. Sometimes the *Infinitive with a Subject Accusative*, as in rhetorical questions:²

Docēbant rem esse testimōniō, etc.; quid esse levius, etc., they showed that the fact was a proof (for a proof), etc.; what was more inconsiderate, etc.? Caes. Respondit, num memoriam dēpōnere pōsse,³ he replied, could he lay aside the recollection? Caes.

III. When IMPERATIVE, they take the Subjunctive:

Scrībit Labiēnō cum legione veniat, he writes to Labienus to come (that he should come) with a legion. Caes. Redditur responsum, castrīs sē tenērent, the reply was returned that they should keep themselves in camp. Liv. Mīlitēs certiōrēs facit, sē reficerent, he directed the soldiers to refresh themselves. Caes. Ōrābant ut sibǐ auxilium ferret, they prayed that he would bring them help. Caes. Nūntius vēnit, nē dubitāret, a message came that he should not hesitate. Nep. Cohortātus est, nē pertūrbārentur, he exhorted them not to be alarmed. Caes.

Note.—An affirmative command takes the Subjunctive without ut, except after verbs of wishing and asking, but a negative command takes the Subjunctive with $n\bar{e}$; see examples.

¹ In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) quid tibǐ vīs? cūr venīs? and (2) cūr perīcliter?

² A question used for rhetorical effect in place of an assertion is called a *Rhetorical Question*, as num potest, 'can he?' = non potest, 'he can not'; quid est turpius, 'what is baser?' = nihit est turpius, 'nothing is baser.' Here belong many questions which in the direct form have the verb in the first or in the third person. As such questions are equivalent to declarative sentences, they take the same construction, the Infinitive with its subject.

³ Direct discourse—(1) quid est levius = nihil est levius, and (2) num memoriam dēpēnere possum = memoriam dēpēnere nēn possum.

⁴ Imperative sentences include those sentences which take the Subjunctive of Desire; see 484.

⁵ In the direct discourse these examples would read—(1) cum legione venī, (2) castrīs võs tenēte, (3) võs reficite, (4) nobīs auxilium fer, (5) nolī dubitāre, and (6) no perturbātī sītis.

RULE LIV.-Moods in Subordinate Clauses.

524. The subordinate clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE on becoming Indirect take the Subjunctive:

Respondit së id quod in Nerviis fëcisset factūrum, he replied that he would do what he had done in the case of the Nervii. Caes. Hippias glöriātus est, annulum quem habēret sē suā manū cōnfēcisse, Hippias boasted that he had made with his own hand the ring which he wore. Cic.

1. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is sometimes used. Thus-

1) In clauses introduced by the relative pronoun, or by relative adverbs, ubi, unde, quārē, etc., when they have the force of principal clauses (453):

Ad eum defertur, esse civem Romanum qui quereretur, quem (= et eum) asservatum esse, it was reported to him that there was a Roman citizen who made a complaint, and that he had been placed under guard. Cic. Te suspicor elsdem, quibus me ipsum, commoveri, Isuspect that you are moved by the same things as I. Cic.

2) In clauses introduced by cum, quam, quamquam, quia, and some other

conjunctions, especially in Livy and Tacitus:

Num putātis, dixisse Antōnium minācius quam factūrum fuisse, do you think Antony spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? Cic. Dicit, sē moenibus inclūsōs tenēre eōs, quia per agrōs vagārī, he says that he keeps them shut up within the walls, because (otherwise) they would wander through the fields. Liv. See also 535, I., 5 and 6.

2. The Indicative is used-

1) In parenthetical and explanatory clauses introduced into the *Indirect Discourse* without strictly forming a part of it:

Referent silvam esse, quae appellatur Bacenis, sthey report that there is a forest which is called Bacenis. Caes. Audio Gellium philosophos qui tune erant convocasse, I hear that Gellius called together the philosophers of that day (lit., who then were). Cic.

2) Sometimes in clauses not parenthetical, to give prominence to the fact

stated, especially in relative and temporal clauses:

Certior factus est ex eā parte vīcī, quam Gallīs concēsserat, omnēs discēssisse, he was informed that all had withdrawn from that part of the village which he had assigned to the Gauls. Caes. Dicunt illum diem clārissimum fuisse cum domum reductus est ā patribus, they say that the day when he was conducted home by the fathers was the most illustrious. Cic.

525. Tenses in the Indirect Discourse generally conform to the ordinary rules for the use of tenses in the Subjunctive and Infinitive; but notice the following special points:

² Direct, annulum quem habeō meā manū confēcī.

4 See 490-496 and 537.

[→] Direct, faciam id quod in Nerviis feci.

³ These clauses, quae appellatur Bacenis and qui tune erant, are not strictly parts of the general report, but explanations added by the narrator.

1. The Present and Perfect may be used even after an historical tense, to impart a more lively effect to the narrative:

Caesar respondit, sī obsidēs sibǐ dentur, sēsē pācem esse factūrum, Caesar replied, that if hostages should be given him, he would make peace. Caes. Exitus fuit ōrātiōnis, neque ūllōs vacāre agrōs, quī darī possint, the close of the oration was, that there were (are) not any lands unoccupied which could (can) be given. Caes.

2. The Future Perfect in a subordinate clause of the direct discourse is changed in the indirect into the Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and into the Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense:

Agunt ut dimicent; ibi imperium fore, unde victoria fuerit, they arrange that they shall fight; that the sovereignty shall be on the side which shall win the victory (whence the victory may have been). Liv. Appārēbat rēgnātūrum quī vicisset, it was evident that he would be king who should conquer. Liv.

Note.-For Tenses in Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse, see 527.

Pronouns and Persons in Indirect Discourse.

526. In passing from the DIRECT DISCOURSE to the INDIRECT, pronouns of the first and second persons are generally changed to pronouns of the third person,² and the first and second persons of verbs are generally changed to the third person:

Glöriätus est, annulum se suā manū confecisse, he boasted that he had made the ring with his own hand. Cic. Redditur responsum, castrīs se tenerent, the reply was returned that they should keep themselves in camp. Liv. Respondit, sī obsides ab iīs sibǐ dentur, sese cum iīs pācem esse factūrum, he replied that if hostages should be given to him by them, he would make peace with them. Caes.

Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse.

527. Conditional sentences, in passing from the DIRECT DISCOURSE to the INDIRECT, undergo the following changes:

¹ In the direct discourse—(1) ibĭ imperium erit, unde vīctöria fuerit, and (2) rēgnābit qui vīcerit.

² Thus—(1) ego is changed to suī, sibǐ, etc., or to ipse; meus and noster to suus; (2) tū to is or ille, sometimes to suī, etc.; tuus and vester to suus or to the Genitive of is; and (3) hīc and iste to ille. But the pronoun of the first person may of course be used in the indirect discourse in reference to the reporter or author, and the pronoun of the second person in reference to the person addressed: Adfirmāvī quidvīs mē perpessūrum, I asserted that I would endure anything. Cic. Respondeō tē dolōrem ferre moderātē, I reply that you bear the affliction with moderation. Cic.

³ Direct, annulum ego meā manū confēci. Ego becomes sē, and meā, suā.

⁴ Direct, castrīs võs tenēte. Võs becomes sē, and tenēte, tenērent.

⁵ Direct, sī obsidēs ā vöbīs mihī dabuntur, vöbīscum pācem faciam. Ā vöbīs becomes ab iīs; mihī becomes sibī; vöbīscum, cum iīs; and the implied subject of faciam becomes sēsē, the subject of esse factūrum.

I. In the First Form, the *Indicative* is changed to the *Subjunctive* in the condition and to the *Infinitive* in the conclusion:

Respondit, sī quid Caesar sē velit, illum ad sē venīre oportēre, he replied, if Caesar wished anything of him, he ought to come to him. Caes.

Note.—In all forms of conditional sentences the conclusion, when *imperative*, and generally when *interrogative*, takes the *Subjunctive* according to 523:

Responderunt, sī non aequum exīstimāret, etc., cūr postulāret, ² etc., they replied, ij he did not think it fair, etc., why did he demand, etc. Caes. Eum certiorem fecerunt, sī suās rēs manere vellet, Alcibiadem persequeretur, ³ they informed him that if he wished his institutions to be permanent, he should take measures against Alcibiades. Nep. Dīc quidnam factūrus fuerīs, sī cēnsor fuissēs, ⁴ say what you would have done, if you had been censor. Liv.

II. In the Second Form, the *Present* or *Perfect Subjunctive* in the condition remains unchanged after a principal tense, but may be changed ⁵ to the *Imperfect* or *Pluperfect* after an historical tense, and in the conclusion it is changed to the *Future Infinitive*:

Respondit, sī stīpendium remittātur, libenter sēsē recūsātūrum populī Rōmānī amīcitiam, he replied that if the tribute should be remitted, he would gladly renounce the friendship of the Roman people. Caes.

Note .- See note under I.

III. In the THIRD FORM, the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive remains unchanged in the condition, regardless of the tense of the principal verb, but in the conclusion it is changed to the Periphrastic Infinitive in -rus fuisse, rarely to that in -rus esse:

Respondit, sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset, sēsē ad eum ventūrum fuisse, he replied that if he wanted anything of Caesar, he would have come to him. Caes. Clāmitābat, sī ille adesset, ventūros esse, he cried out that they would come if he were present. Caes.

Note 1.—In the conclusion, the periphrastic form $fut\bar{u}rum\ fuisse\ ut$ with the Subjunctive is used in the Passive voice, and sometimes in the Active:

Nisi nuntii essent alläti, existimäbant futurum fuisse ut oppidum ämitteretur,7 they thought that the town would have been lost, if tidings had not been brought. Caes.

NOTE 2.—In conditional sentences with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in the condition, and with an historical tense of the Indicative in the conclusion—

2 Direct, sī non aequum exīstimās, cūr postulās?

4 Direct, quidnam fēcissēs (or factūrus fuīstī), sī cēnsor fuissēs.

⁵ But is often retained unchanged according to 525, 1.

¹ Direct, st quid Caesar me vult, illum ad me ventre oportet. For change of pronouns see 526, and for the tense of velit see 525, 1.

³ Direct, sī tuās rēs manērs vīs, Alcibiadem persequere. Notice change in the pronoun and in the person of the verb; see 526.

⁶ Direct, sī stīpendium remittātur, libenter recūsem populī Romānī amīcitiam, or sī stīpendium remittētur, libenter recūsābo populī Romānī amīcitiam. Observe that these two forms become identical in the indirect discourse.

⁷ Direct—(1) sī quid mihī ā Caesare opus esset, ad eum vēnissem; (2) sī ille adesset, venīrent; and (3) nisi nūntiī essent allūtī, oppidum āmissum esset.

1) The Indicative is generally changed to the Perfect Infinitive:

Memento istam dignitatem të non potuisse consequi, nisi meis consiliis paruisses, remember that you would not have been able to attain that dignity, if you had not followed my counsels. Cic.

2) The Indicative is changed to the Perfect Subjunctive if the context requires that

mood:

Quis dubitat quin si Saguntinis tulissemus operam, äversüri bellum fuerimus, who doubts that we should have averted the war, if we had carried aid to the Saguntines? Liv. Scimus quid, si vixisset, factūrus fuerit, we know what he would have done, if he had lived. Liv.

Indirect Clauses.

528. The indirect discourse in its widest application includes—

1. Subordinate clauses containing statements made on the authority of any other person than the writer; see 516:

Omnes libros quos frater suus reliquisset mihi donavit, he gave to me all the books which his brother had left.² Cic.

2. Indirect questions; see 529, I.

Note.—A clause which involves a question without directly asking it is called an *Indirect* or *Dependent Question*:

Quaesīvit salvusne esset clipeus, he asked whether his shield was safe.3 Cic.

3. Many subordinate clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive; see 529, II.

RULE LV.-Moods in Indirect Clauses.

529. The Subjunctive is used—

I. In indirect questions:

Quaeritur, cūr dōctissimī hominēs dissentiant, it is a question, why the most learned men disagree. Cic. Quaesierās, nōnne putārem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. Quālis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is. Cic. Quālis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is. Cic. Quaeritur quid futūrum sit, what a day will bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Quaeritur quid futūrum sit, what will be, is the question. Cic. Quaerit quīnam ēventus, sī foret bellātum, futūrus fuerit, he asks what would have been the result if war had been waged. Liv. Dubitō num dēbeam, I doubt whether I ought. Plin. Incerta feror sī Jūppiter velit, I am rendered uncertain whether Jupiter wishes. Verg. Ut tē oblectēs scīre cupiō, I wish to know how you amuse yourself. Cic. Difficile

2 That is, which he said his brother had left.

¹ Direct—(1) istam dīgnitātem consequi non potuīstī, nisi meis consiliīs pārwissēs; (2) sī Saguntīnīs tulissēmus operam, bellum āversūrī fuimus; (3) quid, sī vīxisset, factūrus fuit?

³ Here no question is directly asked. We have simply the statement, 'he asked whether his shield was safe,' but this statement involves the question, salvusne est alipeus, 'is my shield safe?'

dictu est utrum timuerint an dilexerint, it is difficult to say whether they feared or loved. Cic.

II. Often in clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon another Subjunctive:

Nihil indīgnius est quam eum quī culpā careat supplicio non carēre, nothing is more shameful than that he who is free from fault should not be exempt from punishment. Cic. Utrum difficilius esset negāre tibi an efficere id quod rogārēs diū dubitāvī, whether it would be more difficult to refuse your request or to do that which you ask, I have long doubted. Cic. Recordātione nostrae amīcitiae sīc fruor ut beātē vīxisse videar quia cum Scīpione vīxerim, I so enjoy the recollection of our friendship that I seem to have lived happily because I have lived with Scipio. Cic. Naevium rogat ut cūret quod dixisset, he asked Naevius to attend to that which he had mentioned. Cic. Vereor nē, dum minuere velim laborem, augeam, I fear that, while I wish to diminish the labor, I shall increase it. Cic.

Note 1.—In clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon a Subjunctive, observe—

1) That the Subjunctive is used when the clauses are essential to the general thought of the sentence, as in the examples just given.

2) That the Indicative is used when the clauses are in a measure parenthetical, and when they give special prominence to the fact stated:

Milites mīsit, ut eos quī fūgerant persequerentur, he sent soldiers to pursue those who had fled (i. e., the fugitives). Caes. Tanta vīs probitātis est, ut eam, vel in iīs quōs nūnquam vīdimus, dīligāmus, such is the force of integrity that we love it even in those whom we have never seen. Cic.

Note 2.—In clauses introduced by dum, the Indicative is very common, especially in the poets and historians:

Fuere qui, dum dubitat Scaevinus, hortarentur Pisonem, there were those who exhorted Piso, while Scaevinus hesitated. Tac. See also 467, 4.

1. Indirect or dependent questions, like those not dependent (351, 1), are introduced by interrogative pronouns or other interrogative words, as quis, quī, quālis, etc.; quid, cūr, nē, nōnne, num; rarely by sī, 'whether,' and ut, 'how'; see examples above.

NOTE 1.—Si is sometimes best rendered to see whether, to see if, to try if, etc. . Te adeunt, si quid velis, they come to you to see whether you wish anything. Cic.

Note 2.—In the poets $s\bar{\imath}$ is sometimes similarly used with the *Indicative*:

Înspice si possum dönāta repönere, examine me to see whether I am able to restore your gifts. Hor.

Note 8.—In indirect questions num does not necessarily imply negation.

Note 4.—An indirect question may readily be changed to a direct or independent question.\(^1\)

2. An Accusative, referring to the same person or thing as the subject of the question, is sometimes, especially in poetry, inserted after the principal verb:

¹ Thus the direct question involved in the first example is, cār dōctissimī hominēs dissentiunt, 'why do the most learned men disagree?' In the second, nōnne putās, 'do you not think?'

Ego illum nesció qui fuerit, I do not know (him) who he was. Ter. Die hominem qui sit, tell who the man is. Plaut.

3. Indirect double questions are generally introduced by the same interrogative particles as those which are direct (353). Thus—

1) They generally take utrum or -ne in the first member and an in the second:

Quaeritur virtūs suamne propter dīgnitātem an propter frūctūs aliquōs expetātur, it is asked whether virtue is sought for its own worth, or for certain advantages. Cic.

2) But they sometimes omit the particle in the first member, and take in the second an or-ne in the sense of or, and necne or an non in the sense of or not:

Quaeritur nătūrā an dōctrīnā possit effici virtūs, it is asked whether virtue can be secured by nature, or by education. Cic. Sapientia beātōs efficiat necne quaestiŏ est, whether or not wisdom makes men happy is a question. Cic.

Note 1.—Other forms, as -ne . . . -ne, an . . . an, are rare or poetic:

Qui teneant, hominosne feraene, quaerere, to ascertain who inhabit them, whether men or beasts. Verg.

NOTE 2.—An, in the sense of whether not, implying an affirmative, is used after verbs and expressions of doubt and uncertainty: dubito an, nescio an, haud scio an, 'I doubt whether not,' 'I know not whether not' = 'I am inclined to think'; dubium est an, incertum est an, 'it is uncertain whether not' = 'it is probable':

Dubito an Thrasybulum primum omnium ponam, I doubt whether I should not place Thrasybulus first of all (i. e., I am inclined to think I should). Nep.

Note 3.—An sometimes seems to have the force of aut:

Cum Simonides, an quis alius,1 polliceretur, when Simonides or some other one promised. Cic.

- 4. The Subjunctive is put in the periphrastic form in the indirect question (1) when it represents a periphrastic form in the direct question, and (2) generally, not always, when it represents a Future Indicative; see the fifth and sixth examples under 529, I.
 - 5. Indirect Questions must be carefully distinguished-
- 1) From clauses introduced by relative pronouns or relative adverbs. These always have an antecedent or correlative expressed or understood, and are never, as a whole, the subject or object of a verb, while indirect questions are generally so used:

Dicam quod sentio (relative clause), I will tell that which (id quod) I think.² Cic. Dicam quid intellegam (indirect question), I will tell what I know. Cic. Quaerāmus ubǐ maleficium est, let us seek there (ibǐ) where the crime is. Cic.

2) From direct questions and exclamations:

¹ Some critics treat an quis alius as a direct question inserted parenthetically: or was it some other one?

² In the first and third examples, quod sentio and ubt . . . est are not questions, but relative clauses; id is understood as the antecedent of quod, and ibt as the antecedent or correlative of ubt; but in the second example, quid intellegam is an indirect question and the object of dicam: I will tell (what?) what I know (i. e., will answer that question),

Quid agendum est? nesciŏ, what is to be done? I know not.¹ Cic. Vide! quam conversa res est, see! how changed is the case. Cic.

3) From clauses introduced by nesciŏ quis = quīdam,² 'some one,' nesciŏ quōmodo = quōdammodo, 'in some way,' mīrum quantum, 'wonderfully much,' 'wonderfully,' etc. These take the Indicative:

Nesció quid animus praesagit, the mind forebodes, I know not what. Ter. Id mīrum quantum profuit, this profited, it is wonderful how much (i. e., it wonderfully profited). Liv.

6. Personal Construction.—Instead of an impersonal verb with an indirect question as subject, the personal construction is sometimes used, as follows:

Perspiciuntur quam sint leves,4 it is seen how inconstant they are! Cic.

7. The Indicative in Indirect Questions is sometimes used in early Latin and in the poets, especially in Plautus and Terence:

SI memorare velim, quam fideli animo fui, possum, if I should wish to mention how much fidelity I showed, I am able. Ter.

530. The directions already given for converting the DIRECT DISCOURSE, Oratio Recta, into the Indirect, Oratio Obliqua, are further illustrated in the following passage from Caesar:

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Caesarem obsecrare coepit: 'Nē quid gravius in fratrem statueris; scio illa esse vēra, nec quisquam ex eō plus quam ego doloris capit, propterea quod cum ipse grātiā plūrimum domī atque in rěliqua Gallia, ille minimum propter adulescentiam poterat, per me crēvit; quibus opibus āc nervīs non sõlum ad minuendam grātiam, sed paene ad perniciem meam ūtitur; ego tamen et amore fraterno et existimātione vulgī commoveor. Quod sī quid ěī ā tē gravius acciderit, cum ipse hunc locum amīcitiae apud tē teneam, nēmo exīstimābit, non meā voluntāte factum; quā ex rē totius Galliae animī ā mē āvertentur.'

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Caesarem obsecrăre coepit, ne quid gravius in fratrem statueret ; scire se illa esse vēra, nec quemquam ex eō plūs quam sē doloris capere, proptereā quod cum ipse grātiā plūrimum domī atque in rěliqua Gallia, ille minimum propter adulescentiam posset, per se crēvisset; quibus opibus āc nervīs non solum ad minuendam grātiam, sed paene ad perniciem suam ūterētur : sēsē tamen et amore fraterno et existimătione vulgi commoveri. Quod sī quid ĕī ā Caesare gravius accidisset, cum ipse eum locum amīcitiae apud eum teneret, neminem existimatūrum, non suā voluntāte factum; quā ex rē futūrum utī tōtšus Galliae animī ā sē āverterentur. Caes., B. G., I., 20.

¹ Quid agendum sit nesciŏ, 'I know not what is to be done,' would be an indirect question.

² See 191, note.

³ Praesāgit does not depend upon nesciŏ, but is entirely independent. Nesciŏ quid animus praesāgiat would be an indirect question, and would mean, I know not what the mind forebodes.

⁴ Lit., they are seen. Observe that this personal construction corresponds to the Active, perspiciunt eōs quam sint levēs, 'they perceive (them) how inconstant they are.' See also ego illum nesciō quī fuerit, 529, 2.

Note.—In this illustration observe the following points:

1) That the Indicative in the principal clauses of the direct discourse is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive in the indirect, 1 and that the Subjunctive, statueris, denoting incomplete action, is changed to the Imperfect Subjunctive after the historical tense, coepit.

2) That in the subordinate clauses the verbs denoting incomplete action are changed to the Imperfect Subjunctive, while those denoting completed action are changed to the

Pluperfect Subjunctive.2

3) That scio becomes scire se (i. e., that the subject of the Infinitive is generally expressed).

4) That the pronouns of the first person are changed to reflexives; and that those of the second person are changed to is.3

531. The process by which the Indirect Discourse, Oratio Obliqua, is changed to the Direct, Ōrātiō Rēcta, is illustrated in the following pas sages from Caesar:

INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Respondit, trānsīsse Rhēnum sēsē non suā sponte, sed rogātum et arcessītum ā Gallīs. Sē prius in Galliam vēnisse quam populum Romānum. Quid sibī vellet? Cūr in suās possessiones veniret? Caes., B. G., I., 44.

Ita respondit, eō sibī minus dubitātionis darī quod eas res quas legātī Helvētiī commemorāssent memoriā tenēret. Quod sī veteris contumēliae oblīviscī vellet, num etiam recentium injūriārum memoriam dēponere posse? Cum ea ita sint, tamen, sī obsidēs ab iīs sibī dentur, sēsē cum iis pācem esse factūrum. Caes., B. G., I., 14.

DIRECT DISCOURSE.

Respondit: "Trānsiī Rhēnum non meā sponte, sed roydtus et arcessītus ā Gallīs. Ego prius in Galliam vēnī quam populus Romānus. Quid tibi vīs? Cūr in meās possessiones venis?

Ita respondit: 'Eō mihī minus dubitătionis datur quod eas res quas vos, legātī Helvētiī, commemorāvīstis, memoriā teneō. Quod sī veteris contumēliae oblīviscī volo, num etiam recentium injūriārum memoriam dēponere possum? Cum haec ita sint, tamen, sī obsidēs ā vobīs mihi dabuntur, vöbiscum päcem faciam.'

Note.—In these illustrations observe the following points:

1) That in the principal clauses (1) the Infinitives with se or sese, expressed or understood, are changed to the first person of the Indicative; 4 (2) other Infinitives are also changed to the Indicative, but the person is determined by the context; 5 and (3)

² Thus poterat becomes posset; ūtitur, ūterētur; teneam, tenēret; but crēvit be-

comes crēvisset; acciderit, accidisset.

3 Thus (1) ego is changed to sē; mē to sē; meam to suam; meā to suā; and (2) te to eum; hunc to eum.

4 Thus trānsīsse sēsē is changed to trānsiī; sē vēnisse to ego vēnī; sēsē esse factūrum to faciam; posse, with sē understood, to possum.

5 Thus minus dari becomes minus datur; but if the subject of the Infinitive is of the second person, the Indicative will also be of that person. Responded te dolorem ferre moderātē thus becomes respondeo, 'dolorem moderātē fere;' see p. 299, footnote 2.

¹ Thus scio becomes scire; capit, capere; commoveor, commoveri; existimabit, exīstimātūrum (esse); and āvertentur, futūrum utī āverterentur. This last form, futūrum utī āverterentur, is the Periphrastic Future Infinitive Passive; see 537, 3.

Subjunctives are changed to the Indicative after interrogative words, 1 and to the Imperative in other situations, 2

2) That in the subordinate clauses the Subjunctive, unless required by the thought

irrespective of the indirect discourse, is changed to the Indicative.3

3) That the reflexive pronouns $su\bar{\imath}$, $sib\bar{\imath}$, etc., and suus are changed (1) generally to pronouns of the first person, but (2) sometimes to those of the second person.⁴

4) That is and ille are (1) generally changed to tū or htc, but (2) sometimes retained.5

5) That a noun referring to the person or persons addressed may be put in the Vocative preceded by $t\bar{u}$ or $v\bar{o}s.$

SECTION VII.

INFINITIVE.-SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

I. Infinitive.

582. The Infinitive is a verbal noun with special characteristics. Like verbs, it has voice and tense, takes adverbial modifiers, and governs oblique cases.

RULE LVI.-Infinitive.

533. Many verbs admit an Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning:

Audeō dīcere, I dare say (I venture to say). Cic. Haec vītāre cupimus, we desire to avoid these things. Cic. Cōnstituit non progredī, he decided

- 1 Thus quid vellet is changed to quid vis? cūr venīret to cūr venīs? Vellet and venīret are in the Imperfect simply because dependent upon an historical tense, and are therefore changed to the Present in the direct discourse. In deliberative questions (484, V.) the Subjunctive is retained in the direct discourse.
- ² Thus cum legione veniat, under 523, III., becomes cum legione veni. The Subjunctive may of course be retained in the direct discourse whenever the thought requires that mood.

³ Thus commemorāssent, pluperfect after an historical tense, is changed to commemorāvīstis; tenēret to teneō; vellet to volō; dentur to dabuntur. Sint is retained unchanged because required in a causal clause with cum; see 517.

- 4 Thus (1) trânsīsse sēsē is changed to trânsiī, with subject implied in the ending; suā to meā; sē vēnisse to ego vēnī, with emphatic subject; suās to meās; sibī to mihī; sēsē esse factūrum to faciam; (2) sibī to tibī, in quid sibī vellet. As the subject of an Infinitive (536), sē or sēsē often corresponds to the pronominal subject implied in the ending of a finite verb; see p. 187, foot-note 5.
- ⁶ Thus (1) ab iis is changed to ā vöbis; cum iis to vöbiscum; ea ita sint to haec ita sint; (2) eās rēs is retained.
- ⁶ Thus lēgātī Helvētiī, the subject of commemorāssent, is changed to vös, lēgātī Helvētiī.
- ⁷ Originally the Latin Infinitive appears to have been the Dative case of an abstract verbal noun, and to have been used to denote the *purpose* or *end* (384, 1, 8) for which anything is or is done. Being thus only loosely connected with the verb of the sentence, it readily lost its special force as a case and soon began to be employed with considerable freedom in a variety of constructions. In this respect the history of the *Infinitive* resem-

not to advance. Caes. Crēdulī esse coepērunt, they began to be credulous. Cic. Vincere seīs, you know how to conquer (you know to conquer). Liv. Vīctōriā ūtī nescīs, you do not know how to use victory. Liv. Latīnē loquī didicerat, he had learned to speak Latin. Sall. Dēbēs hŏc rescrībere, you ought to write this in reply. Hor. Nēmŏ mortem effugere potest, no one is able to escape death. Cic. Solent cōgitāre, they are accustomed to think. Cic.

- I. The Infinitive is thus used-
- 1. With Transitive Verbs meaning to dare, desire, determine; to begin, continue, end; to know, learn; to owe, etc.; see examples above.

NOTE 1.—For the Subjunctive with some of these verbs, see 498, I., note. NOTE 2.—See also 498, II., note 1.

- 2. With Intransitive Verbs meaning to be able; to be wont, be accustomed, etc.; see examples above.
- II. In special constructions the Infinitive has nearly the force of a DATIVE OF PURPOSE OR END-1
 - 1. With Intransitive Verbs:

Non populare penates venimus, we have not come to lay waste your homes. Verg. Conjūrāvēre patriam incendere, they conspired to destroy their country with fire. Sall.

2. With Transitive Verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Pecus ēgit altēs vīsere montēs, he drove his herd to visit the lofty mountains. Hor. Quid habēs dīcere, what have you to say? Cic. Dederat comam diffundere ventīs, she had given her hair to the winds to scatter. Verg.²

3. With Adjectives:

Est paratus audire, he is prepared to hear (for hearing). Cic. Avidi committere pugnam, eager to engage (for engaging) in battle. Ovid. Fons rivo dare nomen idoneus, a fountain fit to give a name to the river. Hor.

Note 1.—This use of the Infinitive is mostly poetical.

Note 2.—With adjectives and with participles used as adjectives the Infinitive is rare in prose, but is freely used in poetry in a variety of constructions:

Cantare peritus, skilled in singing. Verg. Pélidés cèdere nescius, Pelides not knowing how to yield. Hor. Certa morī, determined to die. Verg. Dīgnus describī, worthy to be described. Hor. Vitulus niveus vidērī, a calf snow-white to view. Hor.

bles that of adverbs from the oblique cases of nouns. As such adverbs are often used with greater freedom than the cases which they represent, so the Latin Infinitive often appears in connections where, as a Dative, it would not have been at all admissible. Upon the Origin and History of the Indo-European Infinitive, see Jolly, 'Geschichte des Infinitivs.'

- 1 In these constructions the Infinitive retains its original force and use; see 532, foot-note.
- ² In these examples with transitive verbs observe that the Accusative and Infinitive correspond to the Accusative and Dative under 384, II., and that the Accusative Dative, and Infinitive correspond to the Accusative and two Datives under 390, II.

3 Niveus videri, like the Greek λευκὸς ἰδέσθαι.

Piger scribendi ferre laborem, reluctant to bear the labor of writing. Hor. Suum officium facere immemor est, he forgets (is forgetful) to do his duty. Plaut.

Note 3.—The Infinitive also occurs, especially in poetry, with verbal nouns and with

such expressions as tempus est, copia est, etc.:

Cupīdō Stygiōs innāre lacus, a desire to sail upon the Stygian lakes. Verg. Quibus molliter vīvere cōpia erat, who had the means for living at ease. Sall. Tempus est dīcere, it is time to speak. Cic.

Note 4.—The Infinitive is sometimes used with prepositions:

Multum interest inter dare et accipere, there is a great difference between giving and receiving. Sen.

RULE LVII.-Accusative and Infinitive.

534. Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive:

Te sapere docet, he teaches you to be wise. Cic. Eos suum adventum exspectare jüssit, he ordered them to await his approach. Caes. Pontem jubet rescind, he orders the bridge to be broken down. Caes. Te tua frui virtute cupimus, we wish you to enjoy your virtue. Cic. Sentimus calere ignem, we perceive that fire is hot (we perceive fire to be hot). Cic. Regem tradunt se abdidisse, they relate that the king concealed himself. Liv.

Note. - In the compound forms of the Infinitive, esse is often omitted:

Audīvī solitum Fabricium, I have heard that Fabricius was wont. Cic. Spērāmus vöbīs profutūros, we hope to benefit you. Cic.

1. The corresponding Passive is sometimes personal and sometimes impersonal: 2

Personal.—Aristīdēs jūstissimus fuisse trāditur, Aristīdes is said (is reported by tradition) to have been most just. Cic. Sõlem ē mundō tollere videntur, they seem to remove the sun from the world. Cic. Platōnem audīvisse dīcitur, he is said to have heard Plato. Cic. Diī beātī esse intelleguntur, the gods are understood to be happy. Cic.

IMPERSONAL.—Traditum est Homērum caecum fuisse, it has been reported

¹ Observe that in the first three examples the Accusatives $t\bar{e}$, $e\bar{o}s$, and pontem, are the direct objects of the finite verbs, while in the other examples the Accusatives $t\bar{e}$, ig-nem, and $r\bar{e}gem$, may be explained either as the direct objects of the finite verbs, or as the subjects of the Infinitives. The former was doubtless the original construction, but in time the object of the principal verb came to be regarded in many cases as the subject of the Infinitive depending upon it. Thus was developed the Subject Accusative of the Infinitive.

² These two constructions correspond to the two interpretations of the Active mentioned in foot-note 1 above. Thus, in the sentence, Aristidem jüstissimum fuisse trādunt, if Aristidem is regarded as the object of trādunt, according to the original conception, the corresponding Passive will be personal: Aristidēs jūstissimus fuisse trāditur; but if Aristidem is regarded as the subject of fuisse, and the clause Aristidem jūstissimum fuisse as the object of trādunt, then the same clause will become the subject of the Passive, and the construction will be impersonal: Aristidem jūstissimum fuisse trāditur, 'it is reported by tradition that Aristides was most just.'

by tradition that Homer was blind. Cic. Unam partem Gallos obtinere dictum est, it has been stated that the Gauls occupy one part. Caes. Nuntiatur esse naves in portu, it is announced that the vessels are in port. Cic.

Note 1.—The Personal Construction is used—(1) regularly in jubeor, vetor, and videor; (2) generally in the simple tenses 1 of most verbs of saying, thinking, and the like, as dicor, trador, feror, nuntior, credor, existimor, putor, perhibeor, etc.; (3) sometimes in other verbs; see examples above.

NOTE 2.—The Impersonal Construction is especially common in the compound tenses, though also used in the simple tenses; see examples above.

535. The Accusative and an Infinitive are used with a great variety of verbs. Thus—

I. With verbs of Perceiving and Declaring:

Sentīmus calēre ignem, we perceive that fire is hot. Cic. Mihi nārrāvit tē sollicitum esse, he told me that you were troubled. Cic. Scrīpsērunt Themistoclem in Asiam trānsisse, they wrote that Themistocles had gone over to Asia. Nep.

1. Verbs of Perceiving include those which involve (1) the exercise of the senses: audiō, videō, sentiō, etc., and (2) the exercise of the mind—think-ing, believing, knowing: cōgitō, putō, existimō, crēdō, spērō—intellegō, sciō, etc.

2. Verbs of Declaring are such as state or communicate facts or thoughts:

dīcō, nārrō, nūntiō, doceō, ostendō, prōmittō, etc.

3. Expressions equivalent to verbs of perceiving and of declaring, as fāma fert, 'report says,' testis sum, 'I am a witness' = 'I testify,' conscius mihi sum, 'I am conscious,' 'I know,' also admit an Accusative with an Infinitive:

Nüllam mihi relatam esse gratiam, tu es testis, you are a witness (can

testify) that no grateful return has been made to me. Cic.

4. Participle for Infinitive.—Verbs of perceiving take the Accusative with the present participle, when the object is to be represented as actually seen, heard, etc., while engaged in a given action:

Catonem vidī in bibliothēcā sedentem, I saw Cato sitting in the library.

Cic.

5. Subjects Compared.—When two subjects with the same predicate are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Infinitive may be understood in the second:

Platonem ferunt idem sensisse quod Pythagoram, they say that Plato held

the same opinion as Pythagoras. Cic.

6. Predicates Compared.—When two predicates with the same subject are compared, and the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Accusative may be understood in the second:

Num putātis, dixisse Antonium minācius quam factūrum fuisse, do you think Antony spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? Cic.

Note.—But the second clause may take the Subjunctive, with or without ut:

¹ The learner will remember that the simple tenses are formed simply by inflexional endings, as dicitur, dicēbātur, but that the compound tenses are formed by the union of the perfect participle with the verb sum, as dictum est, dictum erat, etc.

Audeo dicere ipsos potius cultores agrorum fore quam ut coli prohibeant, I dare say that they will themselves become tillers of the fields rather than prevent them from being tilled. Liv.

II. With verbs of Wishing, Desiring, Commanding, and their opposites: 1

Te tua frui virtute cupimus, we desire that you should enjoy your virtue. Cic. Pontem jubet rescindi, he orders the bridge to be broken down (that the bridge should be broken down). Caes. Lex eum necari vetuit, the law forbade that he should be put to death. Liv.

Note.—Several verbs involving a wish or command admit the Subjunctive, generally with ut or $n\bar{e}$; see 498, 1:

Opto ut id audiātis, I desire that you may hear this. Cic. Voló ut respondeās, I wish you would reply. Cic. Mālo tē hostis metuat, I prefer that the enemy should fear you. Cic. Concēdo ut hace apta sint, I admit that these things are suitable. Cic.

III. With verbs of Emotion and Feeling: 2

Gaudeo të mihi suadëre, I rejoice that you advise me. Cic. Miramur të laetari, we wonder that you rejoice. Cic.

Note.—Verbs of emotion and feeling often take clauses with quod (540, IV.) to give prominence to the fact stated, or to emphasize the ground or reason for the feeling:

Gaudeo quod të interpellävi, I rejoice that (or because) I have interrupted you. Cic. Dolëbam quod socium ämiseram, I was grieving because I had lost a companion. Cic.

IV. Sometimes, especially in POETRY and in LATE PROSE, with verbs which usually take the *Subjunctive:* ³

Gentem hortor amare focos, I exhort the race to love their homes. Verg. Cuncti suaserunt Italiam petere, all advised to seek Italy. Verg. Soror monet succedere Lauso Turnum, the sister warns Turnus to take the place of Lausus. Verg.

RULE LVIII.—Subject of Infinitive.

536. The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject:

Sentīmus calēre ignem, we perceive that fire is hot. Cic. Platōnem Tarentum vēnisse reperiō, I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cic.

¹ As cupiō, optō, rolō, nōlō, mālō, etc.; patior, sinō; imperō, jubeō; prohibeō, retō, etc.

² As gaudeo, doleo, miror, queror, etc.; also aegre fero, graviter fero, etc.

³ Many verbs in Latin thus admit two or more different constructions; see in the dictionary adigō, cēnseō, concēdō, cögō, cōnstituō, contendō, cupiō, cūrō, dēcernō, dīcō, doceō, ētaborō, ēnītor, facio, impedio, imperō, jubeō, laborō, mālō, mandō, molior, moneō, nōlō, optō, ōrō, patior, permittō, persuādeō, postulō, praecipio, praedicō, prohibeō, sinō, statuō, studeō, suādeō, vetō, videō. See also Draeger, II., pp. 230-416.

⁴ Remember that the Infinitive, as a verbal noun, originally had no subject, but that subsequently in special constructions a subject Accusative was developed out of the object of the principal verb; see 534, foot-note 1. In classical Latin many Infinitives have no subjects, either expressed or understood.

1. HISTORICAL INFINITIVE.—In lively descriptions the *Present Infinitive* is sometimes used for the *Imperfect* or the *Perfect Indicative*. It is then called the Historical Infinitive, and, like a finite verb, has its subject in the Nominative:

Catilina in primă acie versări, omnia providere, multum ipse pugnăre, saepe hostem ferire, Catiline was busy in the front line; he attended to everything, fought much in person, and often smote down the enemy. Sall.

Note.—The Historical Infinitive sometimes denotes customary or repeated action: Omnia in pējus ruere āc retrō referrī, all things change rapidly for the worse and are borne backward. Verg.

2. A PREDICATE NOUN or a PREDICATE ADJECTIVE after an Infinitive agrees with the noun or pronoun of which it is predicated, according to the general rule (362). It is thus—

1) In the Nominative, when predicated of the principal subject:

Nolo esse laudător, I'am unwilling to be a eulogist. Cic. Beatus esse sine virtute nemo potest, no one can be happy without virtue. Cic. Parens dici potest, he can be called a parent. Cic.

Note.—Participles in the compound tenses agree like predicate adjectives: Pollicitus esse dīcitur, he is said to have promised. Cic.

2) In the Accusative, when predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Accusative:

Ego më Phidiam esse mällem, I should prefer to be Phidias. Cic. Träditum est, Homërum caecum fuisse, it has been handed down by tradition that Homer was blind. Cic.

3) In the Dative, when predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Dative:

Patricio tribuno plebis fieri non licebat, it was not lawful for a patrician to be made tribune of the people. Cic. Mihĭ neglegenti esse non licuit, it was not permitted me to be negligent. Cic.

Note.—A noun or adjective predicated of a noun or pronoun in the Dative is sometimes put in the Accusative:

Ĕī consulem fierī licet, it is lawful for him to be made consul. Caes.

537. The Tenses of the Infinitive—Present, Perfect, and Future—denote only relative time. They accordingly represent the time respectively as present, past, or future, relatively to that of the principal verb:

Present.—Cupiō mē esse clēmentem, *I desire to be mild*. Cic. Māluit sē dīligī quam metuī, *he preferred to be loved rather than feared*. Nep.

Perfect.—Platonem ferunt in Italiam venisse, they say that Plato came into Italy. Cic. Conscius mihi eram, nihil a me commissum esse, I was conscious to myself that no offence had been committed by me. Cic.

FUTURE.—Brutum vīsum īrī ā mē puto, I think Brutus will be seen by me.

¹ Historical Infinitives are generally used in groups, seldom singly.

² Here Phidiam is predicated of mē (lit., me to be Phidias), and caecum of Homèrum.

³ Tribūnō is predicated of patriciō, and neglegentī of miht.

Cic. Oraculum datum erat victrices Athenas fore, an oracle had been given, that Athens would be victorious. Cic.

Note. - In general, the Present Infinitive represents the action as taking place at the time denoted by the principal verb, the Perfect as then completed or past, and the Future as then about to take place; but tense is so imperfectly developed in the Infinitive that even relative time is not marked with much exactness. Hence-

1) The Present is sometimes used of future actions, and sometimes with little or no reference to time:

Cras argentum dare dixit, he said that he would give the silver to-morrow. Ter.

- 2) The Perfect is sometimes used of present actions, though chiefly in the poets: Tetigisse timent poëtam, they fear to touch (to have touched) the poet. Hor.

1. After the past tenses of debee, oportet, possum, and the like, the Pres-ENT INFINITIVE is used where our idiom would lead us to expect the Perfect; sometimes also after memini, and the like; regularly in recalling what we have ourselves experienced:

Debuit officiosior esse, he ought to have been more attentive. Cic. Id potuit facere, he might have done this. Cic. Me Athenis audire memini, I remember to have heard (hearing) in Athens. Cic.

2. The Perfect Passive Infinitive sometimes denotes the result of the action. Thus, doctus esse may mean either to have been instructed or to be a learned man (lit., an instructed man). If the result thus denoted belongs to past time, fuisse must take the place of esse:

Populum alloquitur, sopitum fuisse regem īctu, she addresses the people, saying that the king was stunned by the blow. Liv. See also 471, 6, note 1.

3. Instead of the regular Future Infinitive, the Periphrastic Form, futūrum esse ut, or fore ut, with the Subjunctive, Present or Imperfect, is frequently used:

Spērō fore ut contingat id nobīs, I hope this will fall to our lot (I hope it will come to pass that this may happen to us). Cic. Non speraverat Hannibal, fore ut ad se deficerent, Hannibal had not hoped that they would revolt to him. Liv.

Note 1 .- This circumlocution is common in the Passive, and is moreover necessary in both voices in all verbs which want the Supine and the participle in rus.

Note 2 .- Sometimes fore ut with the Subjunctive, Perfect or Pluperfect, is used with the force of a Future Perfect; and in passive and deponent verbs, fore with the perfect participle may be used with the same force:

Dīcō mē satis adeptum fore, I say that I shall have obtained enough, Cic.

538. The Infinitive, with or without a subject, is often used as the subject of a verb:1

With Subject.—Caesarī nuntiātum est equites accedere, it was announced to Caesar that the cavalry was approaching. Caes. Facinus est vincīrī cīvem Romanum, that a Roman citizen should be bound is a crime. Cic. Certum

¹ This use of the Infinitive as subject was readily developed out of its use as object; see 534, 1, foot-note. Thus the Infinitive, with or without a subject, finally came to be regarded as an indeclinable noun, and was accordingly used not only as subject and object, but also as predicate and appositive (539, I. and II.), and sometimes even in the Ablative Absolute (539, IV.), and in dependence upon prepositions (533, 8, note 4).

est liberos amārī, it is certain that children are loved. Quint. Legem brevem esse oportet, it is necessary that a law be brief. Sen.

Without Subject.—Decretum est non dare signum, it was decided not to give the signal. Liv. Are est difficilis rem publicam regere, to rule a state is a difficult art. Cic. Carum esse jucundum est, it is pleasant to be held dear. Cic. Haec seire juvat, to know these things affords pleasure. Sen. Peccare licet nemini, to sin is lawful for no one. Cic.

1. When the subject is an Infinitive, the predicate is either (1) a noun or adjective with sum, or (2) a verb used impersonally; see the examples above.

2. The Infinitive, with or without a subject, may be the subject of another Infinitive:

Intellegi necesse est esse deōs, it must be understood that there are gods. Cic.

3. The Infinitive sometimes takes a demonstrative as an attributive in agreement with it:

Quibusdam hoe displicet philosophārī, this philosophizing (this to philosophize) displeases some persons. Cic. Vīvere ipsum turpe est nobīs, to live is itself ignoble for us. Cic.

539. Special Constructions.—The Infinitive with a subject ² is sometimes used—

I. As a Predicate; see 362:

Exitus fuit ōrātiōnis sibǐ nūllam cum hīs amīcitiam esse, the close of his oration was that he had no friendship with these. Caes.

Note.—An Infinitive without a subject may be used as a Predicate Nominative: Vivere est cogitare, to live is to think. Cic.

II. As an Appositive; see 363:

Ōrāculum datum erat vīctrīcēs Athēnās fore, an oracle had been given, that Athens would be victorious. Cic. Illud soleō mīrārī, non mē accipere tuās lītterās, I am accustomed to wonder at this, that I do not receive your letter. Cic.

III. In EXCLAMATIONS; see 381:

Te sic vexari, that you should be thus troubled! Cic. Mene incepto desistere victam, that I, vanquished, should abandon my undertaking! 4 Verg.

IV. In the ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE; see 431, note 1:

Audītō Darīum mōvisse pergit, having heard that Darius had withdrawn (that Darius had withdrawn having been heard), he advanced. Curt.

¹ Esse deōs is the subject of intellegī, and intellegī esse deōs of est.

³ In the examples, the clause victrices Athenas fore is in apposition with ordeulum, and the clause non me accipere twas litteras, in apposition with illud.

⁴ This use of the Infinitive conforms, it will be observed, to the use of the Accusative and Nominative in exclamations (381, with note 3).

² Including the modifiers of each. Thus in the example the whole clause, sibt nūllam cum hās amīcitiam esse, is used as a Predicate Nominative in agreement with the subject exitus; see 362.

II. SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

540. In Latin, clauses which are used as *substantives* take one of four forms. They may be—

I. INDIRECT QUESTIONS:

Quaeritur, cur dissentiant, it is asked why they disagree. Cic. Quid agendum sit, nescio, I do not know what ought to be done. Cic.

Note.—For the use of Indirect Questions, see 529, I.

II. INFINITIVE CLAUSES:

Antecellere contigit, it was his good fortune to excel (to excel happened).

Cic. Magna negotia voluit agere, he wished to achieve great undertakings. Cic.

Note.—For the use of Infinitive Clauses, see 534; 535.

III. Subjunctive Clauses, generally introduced by ut, nē, etc.:

Contigit ut patriam vindicaret, it was his good fortune to save his country. Nep. Volo ut mihi respondeas, I wish you would answer me. Cic.

Note .- For the use of such Subjunctive Clauses, see 498; 499, 3; 501.

IV. CLAUSES INTRODUCED BY quod:

Beneficium est quod necesse est morī, it is a blessing that it is necessary to die. Sen. Gaudeō quod tē interpellāvī, I rejoice that (because) I have interrupted you. Cic.

Note.—Quod-clauses, used substantively, either give prominence to the fact stated, or present it as a ground or reason. They are used as the subject of impersonal verbs, and as the object of many transitive verbs, especially of such as denote emotion or feeling:

Hùc accédébat quod exercitum luxuriose habuerat, to this was added the fact that he had kept the army in luxury. Sall. Adde quod ingenuas didicisse artés émolit mores, add the fact that to learn liberal arts refines manners. Ovid. Bene facis quod me adjuvas, you do well that you assist me. Cic. Dolébam quod socium amiseram, I was grieving because I had lost a companion. Cic. See also 535, III., note.

SECTION VIII.

GERUNDS, GERUNDIVES, SUPINES, AND PARTICIPLES.

I. Gerunds.

541. The Gerund is a verbal noun which shares so largely the character of a verb that it governs oblique cases, and takes adverbial modifiers:

¹ Quod-clauses occur—(1) as the subject of accēdit, accidit, appāret, ēvenit, fit, nocet, obest, occurrit, prōdest, etc.; also of est with a noun or adjective, as causa est, vitium est, etc., grātum est, indīgnum est, mīrum est, etc.; and (2) as dependent upon accūsō, addō, adiceō (p. 20, foot-note 1), admīror, animadvertō, angor, bene faciō, dēlector, doleō, excūsō, faciō, gaudeō, glōrior, laetor, mīror, mittō, omittō, praetereō, queror, etc. They are sometimes used like the Accusative of Specification. See 516, 2, note.

² The Gerund and the Gerundive were originally identical. The former is the neu-

Jūs vocandi 1 senātum, the right of summoning the senate. Liv. Beātē vīvendī 1 cupiditās, the desire of living happily. Cic.

Note.—In a few instances the Gerund has apparently a passive meaning:

Neque habent propriam percipiendi notam, nor have they any proper mark of distinction (i. e., to distinguish them). Cic.

542. The Gerund has four cases—the Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative—used in general like the same cases of nouns. Thus—

I. The GENITIVE OF THE GERUND is used with nouns and adjectives:2

Ars vīvendī, the art of living. Cic. Studiosus erat audiendī, he was desirous of hearing. Nep. Cupidus tē audiendī, desirous of hearing you. Cic. Artem vēra āc falsa dījūdicandī, the art of distinguishing true things from false. Cic.

Note 1.—The Gerund usually governs the same case as the verb, but sometimes, by virtue of its substantive nature, it governs the Genitive, especially the Genitive of personal pronouns—meī, nostrī, tuī, vestrī, suī:

Copia placandi tui (of a woman), an opportunity of appeasing you. Ov. Sui conservandi causă, for the purpose of preserving themselves. Cic. Vestri adhortandi causă, for the purpose of exhorting you. Liv. Reiciendi i jūdicum potestas, the power of challenging (of) the judges. Cic. Lūcis tuendi copia, the privilege of beholding the light. Plant.

NOTE 2.—The Genitive of the Gerund is sometimes used to denote purpose or tendency:

Lēgēs pellendī clāros viros, laws for (lit., of) driving away illustrious men. Tac.

II. The Dative of the Gerund is used with a few verbs and adjectives which regularly govern the Dative:

Cum solvendo non essent, since they were not able to pay. Cic. Aqua ūtilis est bibendo, water is useful for drinking. Plin.

Note.—The Dative of the Gerund is rare; 4 with an object it occurs only in Plautus.

III. The Accusative of the Gerund is used after a few prepositions:5

Ad discendum propensi sumus, we are inclined to learn (to learning). Cic. Inter lüdendum, in or during play. Quint.

ter of a participle used substantively, while the latter is that same participle used adjectively. Moreover, from this participle the Gerund developed an active meaning and the Gerundive a passive. On the Origin and Use of Gerunds and Gerundives, see Jolly, 'Geschichte des Infinitivs,' pp. 198-200; Draeger, II., pp. 789-823.

1 Vocandi as a Genitive is governed by jūs, and yet it governs the Accusative senā-tum; vīvendī is governed by cupiditās, and yet it takes the adverbial modifier beātē.

² The adjectives which take the *Genitive of the Gerund* are chiefly those denoting DESIRE, KNOWLEDGE, SKILL, RECOLLECTION, and their opposites: avidus, cupidus, studious; conscius, gnārus, ignārus; perītus, imperītus, insuētus, etc.

³ Pronounced as if written rejiciend1; see p. 20, foot-note 1.

⁴ According to Jolly, 'Geschichte des Infinitivs,' p. 200, the Gerund originally had only one case, the Dative, and was virtually an Infinitive.

⁵ Most frequently after ad; sometimes after inter and ob; very rarely after ante, circa, and in,

Note 1 .- The Accusative of the Gerund with a direct object is rare:

Ad placandum deos pertinet, it tends to appease the gods. Cic.

Note 2 .- The Gerund with ad often denotes purpose:

Ad imitandum mihî propositum est exemplar illud, that model has been set before me for imitation. Cic.

IV. The Ablative of the Gerund is used (1) as Ablative of Means, and (2) with prepositions: 1

Mens discendo alitur, the mind is nourished by learning. Cic. Salūtem hominibus dando, by giving safety to men. Cic. Virtūtēs cernuntur in agendo, virtues are seen in action. Cic. Deterrere a scrībendo, to deter from writing. Cic.

NOTE 1.—After prepositions, the Ablative of the Gerund with a direct object is exceedingly rare:

In tribuendo suum cuique, in giving every one his own. Cic.

NOTE 2.—Without a preposition, the Ablative of the Gerund denotes in a few instances some other relation than that of means, as time, separation, etc.:

Incipiendo refugi, I drew back in the very beginning. Cic.

H. GERUNDIVES.

543. The Gerundive, like other participles, agrees with nouns and pronouns:

Inita sunt consilia urbis delendae, plans have been formed for destroying the city (of the city to be destroyed). Cic. Numa sacerdotibus creandis animum adjecit, Numa gave his attention to the appointment of priests. Liv.

Note.—A noun (or pronoun) and a Gerundive in agreement with it form the Gerundive Construction.

544. The GERUNDIVE CONSTRUCTION may be used-

1. In place of a Gerund with a direct object. It then takes the case of the Gerund whose place it supplies:

Libīdō ējus videndī (= libīdō eum videndī), the desire of seeing him (lit., of him to be seen). Cic. Platōnis audiendī (= Platōnem audiendī) studiosus, fond of hearing Plato. Cic. Legendīs ōrātōribus (= legendō ōrātōrēs), by reading the orators. Cic.

NOTE.—The Gerundive Construction should not be used for the Gerund with a neuter pronoun or adjective as object, as it could not distinguish the gender:

Artem vēra āc falsa dījūdicandī, the art of distinguishing true things from false. Cic.

2. In the Dative and in the Ablative with a preposition:

Locum oppido condendo ceperunt, they selected a place for founding a city. Liv. Tempora demetendis fructibus accommodata, seasons suitable for gathering fruits. Cic. Brutus in liberanda patria est interfectus, Brutus was slain in liberating his country. Cic.

¹ The Ablative of the Gerund is used most frequently after \tilde{a} (ab), $d\tilde{e}$, ex (\tilde{e}), in; rarely after eum, $pr\tilde{o}$, and super.

NOTE 1.—The learner will remember that in the *Dative* (542, II., note) and in the *Ablative with a preposition* (542, IV., note 1) the Gerund with a direct object is exceedingly rare. The *Gerundive Construction* supplies its place.

Note 2.—The Gerundive Construction sometimes denotes purpose or tendency, es-

pecially in the Accusative after verbs of giving, permitting, taking, etc.:

Attribuit Italiam vastandam (for ad vastandum) Catilinae, he assigned Italy to Catiline to ravage (to be ravaged). Cic. Firmandae valetūdinī in Campāniam concessit, he withdrew into Campania to confirm his health. Tac. Hace trādendae Hannibalī victoriae sunt, these things are for the purpose of giving victory to Hannibal. Liv. Proficiscitur cognoscendae antiquitātis, he sets out for the purpose of studying antiquity. Tac.

Note 3.—The Gerundive Construction in the Dative occurs after certain official names, as decenviri, triumviri, comitia:

Decemviros legibus scribendis creāvimus, we have appointed a committee of ten to prepare laws. Liv.

Note 4.—The Gerundive Construction in the Ablative occurs after comparatives:

Nüllum officium referendă grătia magis necessarium est, no duty is more necessary than that of returning a favor. Cic.

Note 5.—The Gerundive Construction is in general admissible only in transitive verbs, but it occurs in ator, fruor, funger, potior, etc., originally transitive:

Ad mūnus fungendum, for discharging the duty. Cic. Spēs potiundorum castrorum, the hope of getting possession of the camp. Caes.

III. SUPINES.

545. The Supine, like the Gerund, is a verbal noun. It has a form in um and a form in ū.

Note 1.—The Supine in um is an Accusative; that in \bar{u} is generally an Ablative, though sometimes perhaps a Dative.²

Note 2.—The Supine in um governs the same case as the verb:

Lēgātos mittunt rogātum auxilium, they send ambassadors to ask aid. Caes.

RULE LIX .- Supine in Um.

546. The Supine in *um* is used with verbs of motion to express Purpose:

Lēgātī vēnērunt rēs repetītum, deputies came to demand restitution. Liv. Ad Caesarem congrātulātum convēnērunt, they came to Caesar to congratulate him. Caes.

1. The Supine in um occurs in a few instances after verbs which do not directly express motion:

Filiam Agrippae nuptum dedit, he gave his daughter in marriage to Agrippa.

2. The Supine in um with the verb $e\bar{o}$ is equivalent to the forms of the first Periphrastic Conjugation, and may often be rendered literally:

Bonos omnes perditum eunt, they are going to destroy all the good. Sall.

¹ But in most instances the Dative may be explained as dependent either upon the verb or upon the predicate as a whole; see 384, 4.

² See Hübschmann, p. 223; Draeger, II., p. 833; Jolly, p. 201.

Note.—But in subordinate clauses the Supine in um with the verb $e\bar{o}$ is often used for the simple verb:

Ultum îre (= ulciscī) injūriās festīnat, he hastens to avenge the injuries. Sall.

3. The Supine in um with iri, the Infinitive Passive of eo, forms, it will be remembered (222, III., 1), the Future Passive Infinitive:

Brūtum vīsum īrī ā mē putŏ, I think Brutus will be seen by me. Cic.

- 4. The Supine in um is not very common; 1 but purpose may be denoted by other constructions:
 - 1) By ut or qui with the Subjunctive; see 497.
 - 2) By Gerunds or Gerundives; see 542, I., note 2, and III., note 2; 544, 2, note 2.
 - 3) By Participles; see 549, 3.

RULE LX.-Supine in ū.

547. The Supine in \bar{u} is generally used as an Ablative of Specification (424):

Quid est tam jūcundum audītū, what is so agreeable to hear (in hearing)? Cic. Difficile dictū est, it is difficult to tell. Cic. Dē genere mortis difficile dictū est, it is difficult to speak of the kind of death. Cic. Cīvitās incrēdibile memorātū est quantum crēverit, it is incredible to relate how much the state increased. Sall.

Note.—The Supine in \bar{u} never governs an oblique case, but it may take an Ablative with a preposition, as in the third example above.

- 1. The Supine in \bar{u} is used chiefly with jūcundus, optimus; facilis, prōclīvis, difficilis; incrēdibilis, memorābilis; honestus, turpis; dīgnus, indīgnus; fās, nefās, opus, and scelus.
- 2. The Supine in \vec{u} is very rare. The most common examples are $aud\vec{\imath}t\vec{u}$, $dict\vec{u}$, $fact\vec{u}$, $n\vec{a}t\vec{u}$, $v\vec{\imath}s\vec{u}$; less common, $c\bar{c}gnit\vec{u}$, $intellect\vec{u}$, $invent\vec{u}$, $memorat\vec{u}$, $relat\vec{u}$, $sc\bar{\imath}t\vec{u}$, $tractat\vec{u}$, $v\vec{\imath}ct\vec{u}$.²

IV. PARTICIPLES.

*548. The Participle is a verbal adjective which governs the same cases as the verb:

Animus se non videns alia cernit, the mind, though it does not see itself (lit., not seeing itself), discerns other things. Cic.

Note 1.—For Participles used substantively, see 441.

Note 2.—Participles used substantively sometimes retain the adverbial modifiers which belonged to them as participles, and sometimes take adjective modifiers:

Non tam praemia sequi recte factorum quam ipsa recte facta, not to seek the rewards of good deeds (things rightly done) so much as good deeds themselves. Cic. Praeclarum atque divinum factum, an excellent and divine deed. Cic.

549. Participles are often used-

1. To denote Time, Cause, Manner, Means:

According to Draeger, II., p. 829, the Supine in um is found in only two hundred and thirty-six verbs, mostly of the First and Third Conjugations.

² According to Draeger, II., p. 833, the Supine in \vec{u} is found in one hundred and nine verbs.

Platě scriběns mortuus est, Plato died while writing. Cic. Itūrī in proelium canunt, they sing when about to go into battle. Tac. Sōl oriëns diem conficit, the sun by its rising causes the day. Cic. Mīlitēs renūntiant, sē perfidiam veritõs revertisse, the soldiers report that they returned because they feared perfidy (having feared). Caes.

2. To denote Condition or Concession:

Mendācī hominī nē vērum quidem dīcentī crēdere non solēmus, we are not wont to believe a liar, even if he speaks the truth. Cic. Reluctante nātūrā, irritus labor est, if nature opposes, effort is vain. Sen. Scrīpta tua jam diū exspectāns, non audeo tamen flāgitāre, though I have been long expecting your work, yet I do not dare to ask for it. Cic.

3. To denote Purpose:

Perseus rediit, bellī cāsum tentātūrus, Perseus returned to try (about to try) the fortune of war. Liv. Attribuit nos trucīdandos Cethēgo, he assigned us to Cethegus to slaughter. Cic.

4. To supply the place of Relative Clauses:

Omnës aliud agentës, aliud simulantës, improbī sunt, all who do one thing and pretend another are dishonest. Cic.

5. To supply the place of PRINCIPAL CLAUSES:

Clässem dēvīctam cēpit, he conquered and took the fleet (took the fleet conquered). Nep. Rē cōnsentientēs, vocābulīs differēbant, they agreed in fact, but differed in words. Cic.

NOTE 1.—A participle with a negative is often best rendered by a participial noun and the preposition without:

Miserum est, nihil proficientem angi, it is sad to be troubled without accomplishing anything. Cic. Non erubescens, without blushing. Cic.

Note 2.—The perfect participle is often best rendered by a participial or verbal noun with of :

Homērus fuit ante Romam conditam, Homer lived (was) before the founding of Rome (before Rome founded). Cic.

550. The Tenses of the Participle—Present, Perfect, and Future—denote only relative time. They accordingly represent the time respectively as present, past, and future relatively to that of the principal verb:

Oculus sẽ non vidēns alia cernit, the eye, though it does not see itself (not seeing itself), discerns other things. Cic. Platŏ scrībēns mortuus est, Plato died while writing. Cic. Ūva mātūrāta dulcescit, the grape, when it has ripened (having ripened), becomes sweet. Cic. Sapiēns bona semper placitūra laudat, the wise man praises blessings which will always please (being about to please). Scn.

NOTE 1.—The perfect participle, both in deponent and in passive verbs, is sometimes used of present time, and sometimes in passive verbs it loses in a great degree its force as a tense, and is best rendered by a verbal noun:

Eisdem ducibus ūsus Numidās mittit, employing the same persons as guides, he sent the Numidians. Caes. Incēnsūs perfert nāvēs, he reports the burning of the ships (the ships set on fire). Verg. See also 544.

Note 2.—In the compound tenses the perfect participle often becomes virtually a predicate adjective expressing the result of the action:

Causae sunt cognitae, the causes are known. Caes. See also 471, 6, note 1.

Note 3.—For the Perfect Participle with habeo, see 388, 1, note.

NOTE 4.—The want of a perfect active participle is sometimes supplied by a temporal clause, and sometimes by a perfect passive participle in the Ablative Absolute:

Caesar, postquam vēnit, Rhēnum trānsīre constituit, Caesar, having arrived, decided to cross the Rhine. Caes. Equitātā praemisso subsequēbātur, having sent forward his cavalry, he followed. Caes. See also 431; 519.

NOTE 5.—The want of a present passive participle is generally supplied by a temporal clause:

Cum ā Catōne laudābar, reprehendī mē ā cēterīs patiēbar, being praised by Cato, 1 allowed myself to be censured by the others. Cic.

CHAPTER VI.

SYNTAX OF PARTICLES.

RULE LXI.-Use of Adverbs.

551. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs:

Sapientës fëliciter vivunt, the wise live happily. Cic. Facile döctissimus, unquestionably the most learned. Cic. Haud aliter, not otherwise. Verg.

NOTE 1.—For predicate adverbs with sum, see 360, note 2; for adverbs with nouns used adjectively, see 441, 3; for adverbs in place of adjectives, see 443, notes 3 and 4; for adverbs with participles used substantively, see 548, note 2.

Note 2.—Sie and ita mean 'so,' 'thus.' Ita has also a limiting sense, 'in so far,' as in ita—si (507, 8, note 2). Adeō means 'to such a degree or result'; tam, tantopere, 'so much'—tam used mostly with adjectives and adverbs, and tantopere with verbs.

552. The common negative particles are non, ne, haud.

- 1. Non is the usual negative; no is used in prohibitions, wishes, and purposes (483, 3; 488; 497), and hand, in hand soid an, and with adjectives and adverbs: hand mirrabile, not wonderful; hand aliter, not otherwise. No non is rare. No non after vido is often best rendered whether.
- 2. In non modo non and in non solum non the second non is generally omitted before sed or vērum, followed by nē—quidem or vix (rarely etiam), when the verb of the second clause belongs also to the first:

Assentātič non modo amīcē, sed no liberē quidem dīgna est, flattery is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man. Cic.

3. Minus often has nearly the force of non; sī minus = sī non. Sīn aliter has nearly the same force as sī minus. Minimē often means 'not at all,' 'by no means.'

553. Two Negatives are generally equivalent to an affirmative, as in English:

Nihil non arroget, let him claim everything. Hor. Neque hoc Zeno non vidit, nor did Zeno overlook this. Cic.

1. Non before a general negative gives it the force of an indefinite affirmative, but after such negative the force of a general affirmative:

Nonnemo, some one; nonnihil, something; nonnunquam, sometimes; Nemo non, every one; nihil non, everything; nunquam non, always.

2. After a general negative, $n\bar{e}-quidem$ gives emphasis to the negation, and neque —neque, $n\bar{e}ve-n\bar{e}ve$, and the like, repeat the negation distributively:

Non praetereundum est no id quidem, we must not pass by even this. Cic. Nomo unquam neque poota neque orator fuit, no one was ever either a poet or an orator. Cic. Note.—For the Use of Prepositions, see 432-435.

554. COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS unite similar constructions (309, 1). They comprise five classes.

I. COPULATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote UNION:

Castor et Pollux, Castor and Pollux. Cic. Senātus populusque, the senate and people. Cic. Nec erat difficile, nor was it difficult. Liv.

1. For list, see 310, 1.

2. Et simply connects; que implies a more intimate relationship; atque and de generally give prominence to what follows. Neque and nec have the force of et non. Et and etiam sometimes mean even.

Note.—Atque and $\bar{a}c$ generally mean as, than, after adjectives and adverbs of likeness and unlikeness: $t\bar{a}lis\ \bar{a}c$, 'such as'; $aeque\ \bar{a}c$, 'equally as'; $aliter\ atque$, 'otherwise than.' See also 451, 5.

3. Que is an enclitic, and āc in the best prose is used only before consonants.

4. Etiam, quoque, adeō, and the like, are sometimes associated with et, atque, āc, and que, and sometimes even supply their place. Quoque follows the word which it connects: is quoque, 'he also.' Etiam, 'also,' 'further,' 'even,' often adds a new circumstance.

5. Sometimes two copulatives are used: et—et, que—que,¹ et—que, que—et, que—atque,¹ tum—tum, cum—tum, 'both—and'; but cum—tum gives prominence to the second word or clause; non solum (uon modo, or non tantum)—sed etiam (vērum etiam), 'not only—but also'; neque (nec)—neque (nec), 'neither—nor'; neque (nec)—et (que), 'not—but (and)'; et—neque (nec), 'and not.'

6. Between two words connected copulatively the conjunction is generally expressed, though sometimes omitted, especially between the names of two colleagues. Between several words it is in the best prose generally repeated or omitted altogether, though que may be used with the last even when the conjunction is omitted between the others: pāw et tranquillitās et concordia, or pāw, tranquillitās, concordia, or pāw, tranquillitās, concordiaque.

Note 1.-Et is often omitted between conditional clauses, except before non.

Note 2.—A series may begin with prīmum or prīmō, may be continued by deinde followed by tum, posteā, praetereā, or some similar word, and may close with dēnique

 $^{^1}$ Que-que is rare, except in poetry; que-atque, rare even in poetry; see Verg. Aen., I., 18; Geor., I., 182.

or postrēmō.¹ Deinde may be repeated several times between prīmum and dēnique or postrēmō.²

II. DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote SEPARATION:

Aut vestra aut sua culpa, either your fault or his own. Liv. Duăbus tribusve horis, in two or three hours. Cic.

- 1. For list, see 310, 2.
- 2. Aut denotes a stronger antithesis than vel, and must be used if the one supposition excludes the other: aut virum aut falsum, 'either true or false.' Vel implies a difference in the expression rather than in the thing. It is generally corrective, and is often followed by potius, etiam, or dicam: laudātur, vel etiam amātur, 'he is praised, or even (rather) loved.' It sometimes means even, and sometimes for example. Velut often means for example. Ve for vel is appended as an enclitic.

Note.—In negative clauses aut and ve often continue the negation: non honor aut virtus, 'neither (not) honor nor virtue.'

3. Sive (si—vs) does not imply any real difference or opposition; it often connects different names of the same object: Pallas sive Minerva, 'Pallas or Minerva' (another name of the same goddess).

Note.—Disjunctive conjunctions are often combined as correlatives: aut—aut, vel —vel, etc., 'either—or.'

III. ADVERSATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote opposition or contrast:

Cupiò mè esse clèmentem, sed mè inertiae condemno, I wish to be mild, but I condemn myself for inaction. Cic. Magnès ferrum ad sè trahit, rationem autem adferre non possumus, the magnet attracts iron, but we can not assign a reason. Cic.

- 1. For list, see 310, 3.
- 2. Sed and vērum mark a direct opposition; autem and vērō only a transition; at emphasizes the opposition; atquī often introduces an objection; cēterum means 'but still,' 'as to the rest'; tamen, 'yet.'

Note.—Sed and vērum are sometimes resumptive; see IV., 3, below:

Sed age, responde, but come, reply. Plaut.

- 3. Attamen, sedtamen, vēruntamen, 'but yet,' are compounds of tamen.
- Autem and vērō are postpositive, i. e., they are placed after one or more words in their clauses.

IV. ILLATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote INFERENCE:

In umbrā igitur pūgnābimus, we shall therefore fight in the shade. Cic.

- 1. For list, see 310, 4.
- Certain other words, sometimes classed with adverbs and sometimes with conjunctions, are also illatives, as eō, ideō, idcircō, proptereā, quamobrem, quāpropter, quārē, quōcircā.
- 8. Igitur generally follows the word which it connects: ħīc igitur, 'this one therefore.' After a digression, igitur, sed, sed tamen, vērum, vērum tamen, etc., are often used to resume an interrupted thought or construction. They may often be rendered 'I say': Sed sī quis, 'if any one, I say.'

¹ For examples, see Cic., Fam., XV., 14; Div., II., 56.

² Cicero, Inv., II., 49, has a series of ten members in which *prīmum* introduces the first member, *postrēmō* the last, and *deinde* each of the other eight.

V. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS denote CAUSE:

Difficile est consilium, sum enim solus, counsel is difficult, for I am alone. Cic. Etenim jus amant, for they love the right. Cic.

- 1. For list, see 310, 5.
- 2. Etenim and namque denote a closer connection than enim and nam.
- 3. Enim is postpositive; see 554, III., 4.

555. Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions (309, 2). They comprise eight classes.

I. TEMPORAL CONJUNCTIONS denote TIME:

Pāruit cum necesse erat, he obeyed when it was necessary. Cic. Dum ego in Siciliā sum, while I am in Sicily. Cic. See also 311, 1; 518-521.

- 1. Dum added to a negative means yet; nondum, 'not yet'; vixdum, 'scarcely yet.'
- II. COMPARATIVE CONJUNCTIONS denote COMPARISON:

Ut optasti, ita est, it is as you desired. Cic. Velut si adesset, as if he were present. Caes. See also 311, 2; 513, II.

1. Correlatives are often used: Tam-quam, 'as,' 'so-as,' 'as much-as'; tam-quam quod $m\bar{a}xim\bar{e}$, 'as much as possible'; $n\bar{e}n$ minus-quam, 'not less than'; $n\bar{e}n$ magis-quam, 'not more than.'

Tam-quam and ut—ita with a superlative are sometimes best rendered by the with the comparative: ut $m\bar{a}xim\bar{e}$ —ita $m\bar{a}xim\bar{e}$, 'the more—the more.'

III. CONDITIONAL CONJUNCTIONS denote condition:

Sī peccāvī, īgnosce, if I have erred, pardon me. Cic. Nisi est consilium domī, unless there is wisdom at home. Cic. See also 311, 3; 506-513.

- 1. Nisi, 'if not,' in negative sentences often means 'except'; and nisi quod, 'except that,' may be used even in affirmative sentences. Nisi may mean 'than.' Nihil aliud nisi = 'nothing further' (more, except); nihil aliud quam = 'nothing else' (other than).
 - IV. Concessive Conjunctions denote concession:

Quamquam intellegunt, though they understand. Cic. Etsi nihil habeat, although he has nothing. Cic. See also 311, 4; 514; 515.

V. FINAL CONJUNCTIONS denote PURPOSE:

Esse oportet, ut vīvās, it is necessary to eat, that you may live. Cic. See also 311, 5; 497-499.

VI. Consecutive Conjunctions denote consequence of result:

Atticus ita vīxit, ut Atheniensibus esset carissimus, Atticus so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians. Nep. Sec also 311, 6; 500-504.

VII. CAUSAL CONJUNCTIONS denote CAUSE:

Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. See also 311, 7; 516; 517.

VIII. Interrogative Conjunctions or Particles denote inquiry or question:

Quaesierās, nonne putārem, you had asked whether I did not think. Cic. See also 311, 8; 351-353; 529.

- 556. Interjections are sometimes used entirely alone, as *ēheu*, 'alas!' and sometimes with certain cases of nouns; see 381, with note 3.
- 557. Various parts of speech, and even oaths and imprecations, sometimes have the force of interjections:

Pāx (peace), be still! miserum, miserābile, sad, lamentable! ōrō, pray! age, agite, come, well! meherculēs, by Hercules! per deūm fidem, in the name of the gods! sōdēs = sī audēs (for audiēs), if you will hear!

CHAPTER VII.

RULES OF SYNTAX.

558. For convenience of reference, the principal Rules of Syntax are here introduced in a body.

AGREEMENT OF NOUNS.

I. A noun predicated of another noun denoting the same person or thing agrees with it in case (362):

Brūtus custos lībertātis fuit, Brutus was the guardian of liberty.

II. An Appositive agrees in CASE with the noun or pronoun which it qualifies (363):

Cluīlius rēx moritur, Cluilius the king dies.

NOMINATIVE.—VOCATIVE.

- III. The Subject of a Finite verb is put in the Nominative (368): Servius regnavit, Servius reigned.
- IV. The Name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative (369):

Perge, Laeli, proceed, Laelius.

ACCUSATIVE.

V. The DIRECT OBJECT of an action is put in the Accusative (371):

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world.

VI. Verbs of making, choosing, calling, regarding, showing, and the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing (373):

Hamilcarem imperatorem fecerunt, they made Hamilcar commander.

VII. Some verbs of asking, demanding, teaching, and concealing admit two Accusatives—one of the *person* and the other of the *thing* (374):

Mē sententiam rogāvit, he asked me my opinion.

VIII. A verb or an adjective may take an Accusative to define its application (378):

Capita vēlāmur, we have our heads veiled.

IX. DURATION OF TIME and EXTENT OF SPACE are expressed by the Accusative (379):

Septem et trīgintā rēgnāvit annos, he reigned thirty-seven years. Quīnque mīlia passuum ambulāre, to walk five miles.

X. The Place to which is designated by the Accusative (380):

I. Generally with a preposition-ad or in:

Legiones ad urbem adducit, he is leading the legions to or toward the city.

II. In names of towns without a preposition:

Nuntius Romam redit, the messenger returns to Rome.

XI. The Accusative, either with or without an interjection, may be used in Exclamations (381):

Heu mē miserum, ah me unhappy!

DATIVE.

XII. The Indirect Object of an action is put in the Dative. It is used (384)—

I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:

Tibĭ serviō, I am devoted to you.

II. With TRANSITIVE verbs, in connection with the DIRECT OBJECT:

Agros plebī dedit, he gave lands to the common people.

XIII. Two Datives—the object to which and the object or end for which—occur with a few verbs (390):

I. With Intransitive and Passive verbs:

Malo est hominibus avaritia, avarice is an evil to men.

II. With Transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative:

Quinque cohortes castris praesidio reliquit, he left five cohorts for the defence of the camp.

XIV. With adjectives, the OBJECT TO WHICH the quality is directed is put in the Dative (391):

Omnibus cārum est, it is dear to all.

XV. The Dative is used with a few special nouns and adverbs (392):

I. With a few nouns from verbs which take the Dative:

Jūstitia est obtemperātio lēgibus, justice is obedience to laws.

II. With a few adverbs from adjectives which take the Dative: Congruenter naturae vivere, to live in accordance with nature.

GENITIVE.

XVI. Any noun, not an Appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive (395):

Catonis orationes, Cato's orations.

XVII. Many adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning (399):

Avidus laudis, desirous of praise.

XVIII. A noun predicated of another noun denoting a different person or thing is put in the Genitive (401):

Omnia hostium erant, all things belonged to the enemy.

XIX. The Genitive is used (406)-

I. With misereor and miseresco:

Miserère laborum, pity the labors.

II. With recordor, memini, reminiscor, and obliviscor:

Meminit praeteritorum, he remembers the past.

III. With refert and interest:

Interest omnium, it is the interest of all.

XX. The Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing are used with a few transitive verbs (409):

I. With verbs of reminding, admonishing:

Te amicitiae commonefacit, he reminds you of friendship.

II. With verbs of accusing, convicting, acquitting:

Viros sceleris arguis, you accuse men of crime.

III. With miseret, paenitet, pudet, taedet, and piget:

Eōrum nōs miseret, we pity them.

ABLATIVE PROPER.

XXI. The Place from which is denoted by the Ablative (412):

I. Generally with a preposition-ā, ab, dē, or ex:

Ab urbe proficiscitur, he sets out from the city.

II. In NAMES OF TOWNS without a preposition:

Platonem Athenis arcessivit, he summoned Plato from Athens.

XXII. Separation, Source, and Cause are denoted by the Ablative with or without a preposition (413):

Caedem a võbīs depello, I ward off slaughter from you. Hõc audīvī de parente meo, I heard this from my father. Ars ütilitäte laudātur, an art is praised because of its usefulness.

XXIII. Comparatives without QUAM are followed by the Ablative (417):

Nihil est amābilius virtūte, nothing is more lovely than virtue.

INSTRUMENTAL ABLATIVE.

XXIV. The Ablative is used (419)-

I. To denote Accompaniment. It then takes the preposition cum:

Vīvit cum Balbō, he lives with Balbus.

II. To denote Characteristic or Quality. It is then modified by an Adjective or by a Genitive:

Summā virtūte adulēscēns, a youth of the highest virtue.

III. To denote Manner. It then takes the preposition cum, or is modified by an Adjective or by a Genitive:

Cum virtute vixit, he lived virtuously.

XXV. Instrument and Means are denoted by the Ablative (420):

Cornibus taurī sē tūtantur, bulls defend themselves with their horns.

XXVI. The Ablative is used (421)—

I. With utor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds:

Plūrimīs rēbus fruimur et ūtimur, we enjoy and use very many things.

II. With VERBS and ADJECTIVES OF PLENTY:

 $\label{thm:cheese} \mbox{Villa abunds in $milk$, $cheese$, $and $honey$.}$

III. With dīgnus, indīgnus, and contentus:

Dīgnī sunt amīcitiā, they are worthy of friendship.

XXVII. PRICE is generally denoted by the Ablative (422):

Vēndidit auro patriam, he sold his country for gold.

XXVIII. The MEASURE OF DIFFERENCE is denoted by the Ablative (423):

Uno die longiorem mensem faciunt, they make the month one day longer.

XXIX. A noun, adjective, or verb may take an Ablative to define its application (424):

Nomine, non potestate, fuit rex, he was king in name, not in power.

LOCATIVE ABLATIVE.

XXX. The PLACE IN WHICH is denoted (425)-

I. Generally by the Locative Ablative with the preposition in:

Hannibal in Ĭtaliā fuit, Hannibal was in Italy.

II. In Names of Towns by the *Locative*, if such a form exists, otherwise by the *Locative Ablative*:

Romae fuit, he was at Rome.

XXXI. The TIME of an action is denoted by the Ablative (429):

Octogesimo anno est mortuus, he died in his eightieth year.

XXXII. A noun and a participle may be put in the Ablative to add to the predicate an attendant circumstance (431):

Servio regnante viguerunt, they flourished in the reign of Servius.

Cases with Prepositions.

XXXIII. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with prepositions (432):

Ad amīcum, to a friend. In Ĭtaliā, in Italy.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES, PRONOUNS, AND VERBS.

XXXIV. An adjective agrees with its noun in GENDER, NUMBER, and CASE (438):

Fortuna caeca est, fortune is blind.

XXXV. A pronoun agrees with its antecedent in GENDER, NUMBER, and PERSON (445):

Animal, quod sanguinem habet, an animal which has blood.

XXXVI. A finite verb agrees with its subject in NUMBER and PERSON (460):

Ego rēgēs ējēcī, I have banished kings.

USE OF THE INDICATIVE.

XXXVII. The Indicative is used in treating of facts (474):

Deus mundum aedificāvit, God made (built) the world.

Moods and Tenses in Principal Clauses.

XXXVIII. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS DESIRED (483):

Valeant cives, may the citizens be well.

XXXIX. The Subjunctive is used to represent the action NOT AS REAL, but AS POSSIBLE (485):

Hic quaerat quispiam, here some one may inquire.

XL. The Imperative is used in COMMANDS, EXHORTATIONS, and ENTREATIES (487):

Justitiam cole, practice justice.

Moods and Tenses in Subordinate Clauses.

XLI. Principal tenses depend upon principal tenses; historical upon historical (491):

Enititur ut vincat, he strives to conquer.

XLII. The Subjunctive is used to denote Purpose (497)-

I. With the relative \mathbf{qui} , and with relative adverbs, as $\mathbf{ub\check{t}}$, \mathbf{unde} , etc.: Missī sunt $\mathbf{qu\bar{t}}\ (=ut\ i\bar{\imath})$ consulerent Apollinem, they were sent to consult Apollo.

II. With ut, nē, quō, quōminus:

Enititur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer.

XLIII. The Subjunctive is used to denote Result (500)-

I. With the relative qui, and with relative adverbs, as ubi, unde, cūr, etc.:

Non is sum qui $(=ut \ ego)$ his utar, I am not such a one as to use these things.

II. With ut, ut non, quin:

Ita vīxit ut Athēniensībus esset cārīssimus, he so lived that he was very dear to the Athenians.

XLIV. Conditional sentences with sī, nisi, nī, sīn, take (507)—

I. The Indicative in both clauses to assume the supposed case:

Sī spīritum dūcit, vīvit, if he breathes, he is alive.

II. The Present or Perfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as possible:

Dies deficiat, si velim causam defendere, the day would fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause.

III. The Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in both clauses to represent the supposed case as contrary to fact:

Plūribus verbīs ad tē scrīberem, sī rēs verba dēsīderāret, I should write to you more fully (with more words), if the case required words.

XLV. Conditional clauses take the Subjunctive (513)—

I. With dum, modo, dummodo, 'if only,' 'provided that'; dum nē, modo nē, dummodo nē, 'if only not,' 'provided that not':

Manent ingenia, modo permaneat industria, mental powers remain, if only industry remains.

II. With āc sī, ut sī, quam sī, quasi, tanquam, tanquam sī, velut, velut sī, 'as if,' 'than if,' involving an ellipsis of the real conclusion:

Perinde habēbō, āc sī scrīpsissēs, I shall regard it just as if (i. e., as I should if) you had written.

XLVI. Concessive clauses take (515)-

I. Generally the Indicative in the best prose, when introduced by quamquam:

Quamquam intellegunt, though they understand.

II. The Indicative or Subjunctive when introduced by etsī, etiamsī, tametsī, or sī, like conditional clauses with sī:

Etsī nihil sciŏ quod gaudeam, though I know no reason why I should rejoice.

III. The Subjunctive when introduced by licet, quamvis, ut, $n\bar{e}$, cum, or the relative $qu\bar{i}$.

Licet irrideat, though he may deride.

XLVII. Causal clauses with quod, quia, quoniam, quando, generally take (516)—

I. The Indicative to assign a reason positively on one's own authority: Quoniam supplication decreta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed.

II. The Subjunctive to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority:

Socrates accusatus est, quod corrumperet juventūtem, Socrates was accused, because he corrupted the youth.

XLVIII. Causal clauses with *cum* and *quī* generally take the Subjunctive in writers of the best period (517):

Cum vīta metus plēna sit, since life is full of fear.

XLIX. In temporal clauses with postquam, posteāquam, ubī, ut, simul atque, etc., 'after,' 'when,' 'as soon as,' the Indicative is used (518):

Postquam vidit, etc., castra posuit, he pitched his camp, after he saw, etc.

L. I. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of WHILE, AS LONG AS, take the INDICATIVE (519):

Haec feet, dum licuit, I did this while it was allowed.

II. Temporal clauses with dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of until, take—

- 1. The Indicative, when the action is viewed as an actual fact: Delibera hoc, dum ego redeo, consider this until I return.
- 2. The Subjunctive, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Different, dum defervescat ira, let them defer it till their anger cools.

- LI. In temporal clauses with antequam and priusquam (520)—
- I. Any tense except the Imperfect and Pluperfect is put-
- 1. In the Indicative, when the action is viewed as an actual fact:

Priusquam lücet, adsunt, they are present before it is light.

2. In the Subjunctive, when the action is viewed as something desired, proposed, or conceived:

Antequam de re publica dicam, before I (can) speak of the republic.

II. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put in the Subjunctive:

Antequam urbem caperent, before they took the city.

- LII. In temporal clauses with cum (521)—
- I. Any tense except the Imperfect and the Pluperfect is put in the INDICATIVE:

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are silent, they approve.

- II. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are put—
- 1. In the Indicative, when the temporal clause asserts an historical fact:

Pāruit cum necesse erat, he obeyed when it was necessary.

2. In the Subjunctive, when the temporal clause simply defines the time of the principal action :

Cum epistulam complicarem, while I was folding the letter.

- LIII. The principal clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE on becoming Indirect take the Infinitive or Subjunctive as follows (523):
- I. When Declarative, they take the Infinitive with a Subject Accusative: Dicebat animos esse divinos, he was wont to say that souls are divine.
 - II. When Interrogative, they take-
 - 1. Generally the Subjunctive:

Ad postulata Caesaris respondit, quid sibi vellet, cur veniret, to the demands of Caesar he replied, what did he wish, why did he come?

2. Sometimes the *Infinitive with a Subject Accusative*, as in rhetorical questions:

Docebant rem esse testimonio, etc.; quid esse levius, they showed that the fact was a proof, etc.; what was more inconsiderate?

III. When IMPERATIVE, they take the Subjunctive:

Scribit Labieno cum legione veniat, he writes to Labienus to come (that he should come) with a legion.

LIV. The subordinate clauses of the DIRECT DISCOURSE, on becoming INDIRECT, take the Subjunctive (524):

Respondit se id quod in Nerviis fecisset facturum, he replied that he would do what he had done in the case of the Nervii.

LV. The Subjunctive is used (529)—

I. In indirect questions:

Quaeritur, cūr dōctissimī hominēs dissentiant, it is a question, why the most learned men disagree.

II. Often in clauses dependent upon an Infinitive or upon another Subjunctive:

Nihil indignius est quam eum qui culpă careat supplicio non carere, nothing is more shameful than that he who is free from fault should not be exempt from punishment.

INFINITIVE.

LVI. Many verbs admit an Infinitive to complete or qualify their meaning (533):

Haec vītāre cupimus, we desire to avoid these things.

LVII. Many transitive verbs admit both an Accusative and an Infinitive (534):

Te sapere docet, he teaches you to be wise.

LVIII. The Infinitive sometimes takes an Accusative as its subject (536):

Platonem Tarentum venisse reperio, I find that Plato came to Tarentum.

SUPINE.

LIX. The Supine in um is used with verbs of motion to express Purpose (546):

Legati venerunt res repetitum, deputies came to demand restitution.

LX. The Supine in \bar{u} is generally used as an Ablative of Specification (547):

Quid est tam jucundum audītu, what is so agreeable to hear (in hearing)?

ADVERBS.

LXI. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (551):

Sapientes feliciter vivunt, the wise live happily.

CHAPTER VIII.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES.

559. The Latin admits of great variety in the arrangement of the different parts of the sentence, thus affording peculiar facilities both for securing proper emphasis, and for imparting to its periods that harmonious flow which characterizes the Latin classics. But with all this freedom and variety, there are certain general laws of arrangement which it will be useful to notice.

I. ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

General Rules.

560. The Subject followed by its modifiers occupies the first place in the sentence, and the Predicate preceded by its modifiers the last place:

Sõl oriens diem conficit, the sun rising makes the day. Cic. Animus aeger semper errat, a diseased mind always errs. Cic. Miltiades Athenas liberavit, Miltiades liberated Athens. Nep.

- 561. EMPHASIS and EUPHONY affect the arrangement of words.
- I. Any word, except the subject, may be made *emphatic* by being placed at the BEGINNING of the sentence:

Silent legës inter arma, laws are silent in war. Cic. Numitöri Remus deditur, Remus is delivered to Numitor. Liv.

II. Any word, except the predicate, may be made emphatic by being placed at the END of the sentence:

Nobis non satisfacit ipse Dēmosthenēs, even Demosthenes does not satisfy us. Cic. Consulatum petīvit nūnquam, he never sought the consulship. Cic.

III. Two words naturally connected, as a noun and its adjective, or a noun and its Genitive, are sometimes made *emphatic* by Separation:

Objurgătiones nonnunquam incidunt necessăriae, sometimes necessary RE-PROOFS occur. Cic. Justitiae fungătur officiis, let him discharge the duties of nustice. Cic.

Note.—A word may be made emphatic by being placed between the parts of a compound tense:

Māgna adhibita cūra est, great care has been taken. Cic.

562. Chiasmus. —When two groups of words are contrasted, the order of the first is often reversed in the second:

¹ So called from the Greek letter X.

Fragile corpus animus sempiternus movet, the imperishable soul moves the perishable body. Cic.

563. KINDRED WORDS.—Different forms of the same word, or different words of the same derivation, are generally placed near each other:

Ad senem senex de senectute scripsī, I, an old man, wrote to an old man on the subject of old age. Cic. Inter se alis alis prosunt, they benefit each other. Cic.

- 564. A word which has a COMMON RELATION to two other words connected by conjunctions, is placed—
 - I. Generally before or after both:

Pācis et artes et gloria, both the arts and the glory of peace. Liv. Bellī pācisque artes, the arts of war and of peace. Liv.

NOTE.—A Genitive or an adjective following two nouns may qualify both, but it more frequently qualifies only the latter:

Haec percunctatio ac denuntiatio belli, this inquiry and this declaration of war. Liv.

II. Sometimes directly after the first before the conjunction:

Honoris certamen et gloriae, a struggle for honor and glory. Cic. Agrī omnēs et maria, all lands and seas. Cic.

Special Rules.

565. The Modifiers of a Noun generally follow it. They may be either adjectives or nouns:

Populus Romanus decrevit, the Roman people decreed. Cic. Herodotus, pater historiae, Herodotus, the father of history. Cic. Liber de officis, the book on duties. Cic.

1. Modifiers, when emphatic, are placed before their nouns:

Tuscus ager Romano adjacet, the Tuscan territory borders on the Roman. Liv.

2. When a noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, the usual order is, Adjective—Genitive—noun:

Māgna cīvium pēnūria, a great scarcity of citizens. Cic.

3. An adjective is often separated from its noun by a monosyllabic preposition:

Magno cum perículo esse, to be attended with great peril. Cic.

4. In the poets an adjective is often separated from its noun by the modifier of another noun:

Înspērāta tuae veniet plūma superbiae, the unexpected down shall come upon your pride. Hor.

566. The Modifiers of an Adjective generally precede it, but, if not adverbs, they may follow it:

Facile doctissimus, unquestionably the most learned. Cic. Omni aetātī commūnis, common to every age. Cic. Avidus laudis, desirous of praise. Cic.

567. The Modifiers of a Verb generally precede it:

Gloria virtûtem sequitur, glory follows virtue. Cic. Mundus deo paret, the world is subject to God. Cic. Vehementer dixit, he spoke vehemently. Cic.

1. When the verb is placed at the beginning of the sentence, the modifiers, of course, follow; see the first example under 561, I.

2. An emphatic modifier may of course stand at the beginning or at the end of the sentence (561):

Facillime cognoscuntur adulescentes, most easily are the young men recognized. Cic.

3. Of two or more modifiers belonging to the same verb, that which in thought is most intimately connected with the verb stands next to it, while the others are arranged as emphasis and euphony may require:

Mors propter brevitätem vitae nünquam longe abest, death is never far distant, in

consequence of the shortness of life. Cic.

568. The Modifiers of an Advers generally precede it, but a Dative often follows it:

Valde vehementer dixit, he spoke very vehemently. Cic. Congruenter naturae vivit, he lives agreeably to nature. Cic.

- 569. Special Words.—Some words have a favorite place in the sentence, which they seldom leave. Thus—
 - I. The Demonstrative generally precedes its noun:

Custos hujus urbis, the guardian of this city. Cic.

1. Ille in the sense of well-known (450, 4) generally follows its noun, if not accompanied by an adjective:

Mēdēa illa, that well-known Medea. Cic.

2. Pronouns are often brought together, especially quisque with suus or suī:

Jūstitis suum cuique tribuit, justice gives to every man his due (his own). Cic. Quī sēsē student praestūre, etc., who are eager to excel, etc. Sall.

II. Prepositions generally stand directly before their cases, but tenus and versus follow their cases:

In Asiam profugit, he fled into Asia. Cic. Collo tenus, up to the neck. Ov.

1. The preposition frequently follows the relative, sometimes other pronouns, and sometimes even nouns, especially in poetry:

Res qua de agitur, the subject of which we are treating. Cic. Italiam contra, over against Italy. Verg. Corpus in Aeacidae, into the body of Aeacides. Verg.

2. For cum appended to an Ablative, see 184, 6; 187, 2.

3. Genitives, adverbs, and a few other words sometimes stand between the preposition and its case. In adjurations per is usually separated from its case by the Accusative of the object adjured, or by some other word; and sometimes the verb $\delta r \delta$ is omitted:

Post Alexandrī māgnī mortem, after the death of Alexander the Great. Cic. Ad bene vīvendum, for living well. Cic. Per ego hās lacrimās tē ōrō, I implore you by these tears. Verg. Per ego võs deōs (= per deōs ego võs ōrō), I pray you in the name of the gods. Curt.

III. Conjunctions and Relatives, when they introduce clauses, generally stand at the beginning of such clauses; but autem, enim, quidem, quoque, $v\bar{e}r\bar{o}$, and generally igitur, follow some other word:

Sī peccāvī, īgnōsce, if I have erred, pardon me. Cic. Iī quī superiorēs

sunt, those who are superior. Cic. Ipse autem omnia videbat, but he himself saw all things. Cic.

1. A conjunction may follow a relative or an emphatic word, and a relative may follow an emphatic word:

Id ut audīvit, as he heard this. Nep. Quae cum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. Trōjae quī prīmus ab örīs vēnit, who came first from the shores of Troy. Verg.

Note.—Certain conjunctions, as et, nec, sed, and even aut and vel, are more frequently removed from the beginning of the clause in poetry than in prose:

Compressus et omnis impetus, and all violence was checked. Verg.

2. Ne-quidem takes the emphatic word or words between the two parts:

Në in oppidis quidem, not even in the towns. Cic.

3. Quidem often follows pronouns, superlatives, and ordinals:

Ex me quidem nihil audiet, from me indeed he will hear nothing. Cic.

4. Que, ve, ne, introducing a clause or phrase, are generally appended to the first word; but if that word is a preposition, they are often appended to the next word:

In foroque, and in the forum. Cic. Inter nosque, and among us. Cic.

IV. Non, when it qualifies some single word, stands directly before that word; but when it is particularly emphatic, or qualifies the entire clause, it sometimes stands at the beginning of the clause, and sometimes before the finite verb or before the auxiliary of a compound tense:

Hāc vīllā carēre non possunt, they are not able to do without this villa. Cic. Non fuit Jūppiter metuendus, Jupiter was not to be feared. Cic. Fās non putant, they do not think it right. Cic. Pecūnia solūta non est, the money has not been paid. Cic.

1. In general, in negative clauses the negative word, whether particle, verb, or noun, is made prominent:

Negat quemquam posse, he denies that any one is able. Cic. Nihil est melius, nothing is better. Cic.

V. Inquam, sometimes āiō, introducing a quotation, follows one or more of the words quoted. The subject, if expressed, generally follows its verb:

Nihil, inquit Brūtus, quod dīcam, nothing which I shall state, said Brutus. Cic.

VI. The Vocative rarely stands at the beginning of a sentence. It usually follows an emphatic word:

Perge, Laelī, proceed, Laelius. Cic.

II. ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

570. Clauses connected by coördinate conjunctions (554) follow each other in the natural order of the thought, as in English:

Sõl ruit et montes umbrantur, the sun hastens to its setting, and the mountains are shaded. Verg. Gỹgès à nullo videbatur, ipse autem omnia videbat, Gyges was seen by no one, but he himself saw all things. Cio.

571. A clause used as the Subject of a complex sentence (348) generally stands at the *beginning* of the sentence, and a clause used as the Predicate at the *end*:

Quid dies ferat incertum est, what a day may bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Exitus fuit orationis, sibi nullam cum his amicitiam esse, the close of the oration was, that he had no friendship with these men. Caes.

- 1. This arrangement is the same as that of the simple sentence; see 560.
- Emphasis and euphony often have the same effect upon the arrangement of clauses as upon the arrangement of words; see 561.
- 572. Clauses used as the Subordinate Elements of complex sentences admit three different arrangements:
- I. They are generally inserted within the principal clause, like the sub-ordinate elements of a simple sentence:

Hostes, ubĭ prīmum nostros equites conspexerunt, celeriter nostros perturbāvērunt, the enemy, as soon as they saw our cavalry, quickly put our men to rout. Caes. Sententia, quae tūtissima vidēbātur, vīcit, the opinion which seemed the safest prevailed. Liv.

II. They are often placed before the principal clause:

Cum quiescunt, probant, while they are quiet, they approve. Cic. Qualis sit animus, animus nescit, the soul knows not what the soul is. Cic.

Note.—This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause either refers back to the preceding sentence, or is preparatory to the thought of the principal clause. Hence temporal, conditional, and concessive clauses often precede the principal clause. Hence also, in sentences composed of correlative clauses with $is-qu\bar{\imath}$, $t\bar{\imath}dis-qu\bar{\imath}dis$, tantus-quantus, tum-cum, ita-ut, etc., the relative member, i. e., the clause with $qu\bar{\imath}$, $qu\bar{\imath}dis$, quantus, cum, ut, etc., generally precedes.

III. They sometimes follow the principal clause:

Entitur ut vincat, he strives that he may conquer. Cic. Sol efficit ut omnia floreant, the sun causes all things to bloom. Cic.

Note.—This arrangement is generally used when the subordinate clause is either intimately connected in thought with the following sentence, or explanatory of the principal clause. Hence, clauses of *Purpose* and *Result* generally follow the principal clause, as in the examples.

573. LATIN PERIODS.—A complex sentence in which two or more subordinate clauses are inserted within the principal clause is called a Period in the strict sense of the term.

NOTE 1.—The examples given under 572, I., are short and simple examples of Latin Periods.

NOTE 2.—Many Latin periods consist of several carefully constructed clauses so united as to form one complete harmonious whole. For examples, see Cicero's Third Oration against Catiline, XII., 'Sed quoniam . . . providere'; also Livy, I., 6, 'Numitor, interprimum . . . ostendit.'

Note 3.—In a freer sense the term *Period* is sometimes applied to all complex sentences which end with principal clauses. In this sense the examples given under 572, II., are *Periods*. Many carefully elaborated Latin sentences are constructed in this way; see Cicero's Oration for the Poet Archias, I., 'Quod sī haec...döbēmus'; also the First Oration against Catiline, XIII., 'Ut saepe hominës... ingravesect.'

PART FOURTH.

PROSODY.

574. Prosody treats of Quantity and Versification.

CHAPTER I.

QUANTITY.

575. The time occupied in pronouncing a syllable in poetry is called its quantity. Syllables are accordingly characterized as long, short, or common.

I. GENERAL RULES OF QUANTITY.

576. A syllable is Long in Quantity—

I. If it contains a DIPHTHONG, or is the result of Contraction:

haec, foedus, aura; cōgō (for coigō), occīdō (for occaedō), nīl (for nihil).

1. Prae in composition is usually short before a vowel: praeacūtus.

II. If its vowel is followed by J, X, or Z, or any Two Consonants except a mute and a liquid:

mājor, dux, servus, sunt, regunt, rēgnum, agmen.

1. But one or both of the consonants must belong to the same word as the vowel: $ab * s\bar{e}de$, per * saxa.

Note 1.—H has no tendency in combination with any consonant to lengthen a preceding syllable. Hence in such words as Achaeus, Athēnae, the first syllable is short.

Note 2.—In the early poets a short final syllable ending in s remained short before a word beginning with a consonant; sometimes also short final syllables ending in other consonants; imaginis formam, enim vērō, erat dictō.

¹ In many cases the quantity of syllables may be best learned from the Dictionary, but in others the student may be greatly aided by certain general statements or rules.

² That is, sometimes long and sometimes short.

³ Here the syllable is *long by nature* if the vowel is long, but *long only by position* if the vowel is short. For the quantity of vowels before two consonants or a double consonant, see 651.

⁴ Here ab becomes long before s in sede, and per before s in saxa.

⁵ Here the syllables is, im, and at remain short.

Note 3.—In the early poets many syllables long by position in the Augustan poets are sometimes short, as the first syllable of ecce, ergō, ille, inter, omnis, unde, uxor.

NOTE 4.—A final syllable ending in a vowel is occasionally, though rarely, lengthened by consonants at the beginning of the following word.

Note 5.—In Greek words a syllable with a vowel before a mute and a nasal is sometimes short: cycnus, Tecnessa.

- 2. In the compounds of jugum, the syllable before j is short: bijugus.
- 577. A syllable is Short in Quantity if its vowel is followed in the same word by another Vowel, by a Diphthong, or by the aspirate H:

diēs, doceō, viae, nihil.

- I. The following vowels, with the syllables which contain them, are long by Exception:
- 1. A—(1) in the Genitive ending $\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$ of Dec. I.: $aul\bar{a}\bar{\imath}$; (2) in proper names in $\bar{a}ius$: $G\bar{a}ius$ (Gājus); (3) before ia, ie, io, iu, in the verb $\bar{a}i\bar{o}$.
- 2. **E**—(1) in the ending $\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$ of Dec. V. when preceded by a vowel: $di\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$; and sometimes when preceded by a consonant: $fid\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$, $r\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$; often in the Dative Singular of the pronoun is: $\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$; (2) in proper names in $\bar{e}ius$: $Pomp\bar{e}ius$; (3) in $\bar{e}heu$, and in $Rh\bar{e}a$.
- 3. **I**—(1) in the verb $f\bar{\imath}\bar{o}$, when not followed by $er: f\bar{\imath}am$, $f\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}bam$, but $fier\bar{\imath}$; (2) in $d\bar{\imath}us$, a, um (for $d\bar{\imath}vus$, a, um); (3) generally in the Genitive ending $\bar{\imath}us$: $al\bar{\imath}us$, $ill\bar{\imath}us$; (4) sometimes in $D\bar{\imath}\bar{a}na$.
 - 4. O-sometimes in ŏhē.
- 5. In Greek words vowels are often long before a vowel, because long in the original: āēr, Aenēās, Brīsēis, Menelāus, Trões.

Note.—This often occurs in proper names in ēa, īa, ēus, īus, āön, īōn, āis, ōis, ōius: Mēdēa, Alexandrīa, Pēnēus, Dārīus, Orīōn.

578. A syllable is COMMON IN QUANTITY if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute and a liquid:

ager, agrī; pater, patris; duplex, triplex.

NOTE 1.—A syllable ending in a mute in the first part of a compound before a liquid at the beginning of the second part is long: ab-rumpō, ob-rogō.

Note 2.—In Plautus and Terence a syllable with a short vowel before a mute and a liquid is short.

II. QUANTITY OF FINAL SYLLABLES.

579. Monosyllables are long:

ā, dā, tē, sē, dē, sī, quī, dō, prō, tū, dōs, pēs, sīs, bōs, sūs, pār, sōl.

¹ The name of the daughter of Numitor, and of a priestess in Vergil. In Rhed, another name for $Cybel\bar{e}$, the e is short.

² Sometimes fieri in Plautus and Terence,

- I. The following are short by Exception:
- 1. Enclitics: que, ve, ne, ce, te, pse, pte.
- 2. Monosyllables in b, d, l, m, t: ab, ad, fel, sum, et; except sāl, sōl.
- 3. An, bis, cis, cor, es, fac, fer, in, is, nec, os (ossis), per, ter, qua (indefinite), quis, vir, vas (vadis), and sometimes h̄t̄c and h̄t̄c in the Nominative and Accusative.
 - 580. In words of more than one syllable-
- I. The final vowels i, o, and u are long; a, e, and y, short:

marī, audī, servō, omnīnō, frūctū, cornū; via, maria, mare, misy.

II. Final syllables in **c** are long; in **d**, **l**, **m**, **n**, **r**, **t**, short: ālēc, illūc; illud, cōnsul, amem, carmen, amor, caput.

Note 1 .- Donec and lien are exceptions.

Note 2.—Final syllables in n and r are long in many Greek words which end long in the original: as Tītān, Anchīsēn, Hymēn, Delphīn, āēr, aethēr, crātēr.

III. The final syllables as, es, and os are long; is, us, ys, short:

amās, mēnsās, monēs, nūbēs, servōs; avis, urbis, bonus, chlamys.

NOTE 1.—The learner will remember that short final syllables like is, us, etc., may be lengthened by being placed before a word beginning with a consonant; see 576, II.

Note 2.—Plautus retains the original quantity of many final syllables usually short in the Augustan age. Thus the endings \bar{a} , \bar{e} , $\bar{a}l$, $\bar{a}r$, $\bar{o}r$, $\bar{e}s$, $\bar{u}s$, $\bar{a}t$, $\bar{e}t$, $\bar{i}t$, often stand in place of the later endings a, e, al, ar, or, is, us, at, et, it (21). Some of these early forms are retained by Terence, and some of them occasionally occur in the Augustan poets.

Note 3.—Plautus and Terence, in consequence of the colloquial character of comedy, often shorten unaccented final syllables after an accented short syllable: ama, abi.

dedi, domi, domo, viro, pedes.

NOTE 4.—In Plautus and Terence the doubling of a letter does not usually affect the quantity of the syllable: U in ille, mm in immē, pp in opportūnē.

- 581. Numerous exceptions to the general rule for the quantity of final syllables occur even in classical Latin:
 - I. I final, usually Long, is sometimes short or common-
- 1. Short in nisi, quasi, cui (when a dissyllable), and in the Greek ending si of the Dative and Ablative Plural.
- 2. Common in mihī, tibī, sibī, ibī, ubī, and in the Dative and Vocative Singular of some Greek words.
 - II. O final, usually long, is short-
- 1. In duo, ego, octo, eho, in the adverbs cito, ilico, modo, and its compounds, dummodo, quomodo, etc., in cedo, and in the old form endo.

 $^{^1}$ U is short in indu and něnu. Contracted syllables are long, according to 576, I.

2. Sometimes (1) in nouns of Dec. III. and (2) in verbs, though very rarely in the best poets.

III. A final, usually short, is LONG-

- 1. In the Ablative: mēnsā, bonā, illā.
- 2. In the Vocative of Greek-nouns in as: Aenēā, Pallā.1
- 3. In Verbs and Particles: amā, cūrā; circā, juxtā, anteā, frustrā. Except ita, quia, ēja, hēja, and puta used adverbially.

IV. E final, usually short, is LONG-

- 1. In Dec. I. and V., 2 and in Greek plurals of Dec. III.: epitomē; rē, diē; tempē, melē.
 - 2. Generally in the Dative ending \check{e} of Dec. III.: $aer\check{e}=aer\bar{\imath}$.
- 3. In the Singular Imperative Active of Conj. II.: monē, docē. But e is sometimes short in cavē, vidē, etc.³
- 4. In fere, ferme, ŏhe, and in adverbs from adjectives of Dec. II.: docte, recte. Except bene, male, inferne, interne, superne.

V. As final, usually LONG, is SHORT-

- 1. In anas and in a few Greek nouns in as: Arcas, lampas.
- 2. In Greek Accusatives of Dec. III.: Arcadas, hērōas.

VI. Es final, usually LONG, is SHORT-

- 1. In Nominatives Singular of Dec. III. with short increment (582) in the Genitive: mīles (itis), obses (idis), interpres (etis). Except abiēs, ariēs, pariēs, Cerēs, and compounds of pēs, as bipēs, tripēs, etc.
 - 2. In penes and the compounds of es, as ades, potes.
- 3. In Greek words—(1) in the plural of those which increase in the Genitive: Arcades, Trōades; (2) in a few neuters in es: Hippomenes; (3) in a few Vocatives Singular: Dēmosthenes.

VII. Os final, usually LONG, is SHORT-

- 1. In compos, impos, exos.
- In Greek words with the ending short in the Greek: Delos, melos.

VIII. Is final, usually short, is LONG-

- In plural cases: mēnsīs, servīs, vōbīs. Hence forīs, grātīs, ingrātīs.
- In Nominatives of Dec. III. increasing long in the Genitive: Quirīs (itis), Salamīs (inis).
 - 3. In the Singular Present Indic. Act. of Conj. IV.: audis.

Note.—Māvīs, quīvīs, utervīs, follow the quantity of vīs.

4. In the Singular Present Subj. Act.: possīs, velīs, nolīs, mālīs.

¹ Sometimes in the Vocative of Greek nouns in as and es.

² Hence, in the compounds, hodiē, prīdiē, postrīdiē, quārē.

³ In the comic poets many dissyllabic Imperatives with a short penult shorten the ultimate: as habe, jube, mane, move, tace, tene, etc.

5. Sometimes in the Singular of the Future Perfect and of the Perfect Subjunctive: amāverīs, docuerīs.

IX. Us final, usually short, is LONG-

1. In Nominatives of Dec. III. increasing long in the Genitive: virtus (utis), tellus (uris).

Note.—But palus (u short) occurs in Horace, Ars Poētica, 65.

- In Dec. IV., in the Genitive Singular, and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural: frūctūs.
 - 3. In Greek words ending long in the original: Panthūs, Sapphūs, tripūs. Note.—But we have Oedipus and põlypus.

III. QUANTITY IN INCREMENTS.

- 582. A word is said to *increase* in declension, when it has in any case more syllables than in the Nominative Singular, and to have as many *increments of declension* as it has additional syllables: sermŏ, sermōnis, sermōnibus.
- 583. A verb is said to *increase* in conjugation, when it has in any part more syllables than in the second person singular of the Present Indicative Active, and to have as many *increments of conjugation* as it has additional syllables: amās, amātis, amābātis.²
- 584. If there is but one increment, it is uniformly the penult; if there are more than one, they are the penult with the requisite number of syllables before it. The increment nearest the beginning of the word is called the *first* increment, and those following this are called successively the *second*, third, and fourth increments.³

Increments of Declension.

585. In the Increments of Declension, a and o are long; e, i, u, and y, short:

aetās, aetātis, aetātibus; sermō, sermōnis; puer, puerī, puerōrum; fulgur, fulguris; chlamys, chlamydis; bonus, bonārum, bonōrum; ille, illārum, illōrum; miser, miserī; supplex, supplicis; satur, saturī.

I. A, usually Long in the increments of declension, is shorr in the first increment—5

² Amātis has one increment, amābātis two.

¹ Sermönis, having one syllable more than sermö, has one increment, while sermönibus has two increments.

³ In ser-mon-i-bus, the first increment is $m\bar{o}n$, the second i; and in $mon-u-e-r\bar{u}-mus$, the first is u, the second e, the third $r\bar{u}$.

⁴ Y occurs only in Greek words, and is long in the increments of nouns in yn and of a few others.

⁵ Observe that the exceptions belong to the first increment.

- Of masculines in al and ar: Hannibal, Hannibalis; Caesar, Caesaris.
 Of nouns in s preceded by a consonant: days, dapis; Arabs, Arabi
- 2. Of nouns in s preceded by a consonant: daps, dapis; Arabs, Arabis; hiems, hiemis.
 - 3. Of Greek nouns in a and as: poēma, poēmatis; Pallas, Palladis.
- 4. Of (1) baccar, hēpar, jubar, lār, nectar, pār, and its compounds; (2) anas, mās, vas (vadis); (3) sāl, fax, and a few rare Greek words in ax.
- II. O, usually Long in the increments of declension, is short in the first increment— 1
- 1. Of Neuters in Declension III.: aequor, aequoris; tempus, temporis. Except ōs (ōris), ador (adŏris), and comparatives.
- 2. Of words in s preceded by a consonant: inops, inopis. Except Cyclops and hydrops.
- 3. Of arbor, bos, lepus; compos, impos, memor, immemor; Allobrox, Cappadox, praecox.
 - 4. Of most Patrials : Macedo, Macedonis.
- 5. Of many Greek nouns—(1) those in $\bar{o}r : rh\bar{e}t\bar{o}r$, $Hect\bar{o}r$; (2) many in \check{o} and $\bar{o}n$ increasing short in Greek: $a\bar{e}d\bar{o}n$, $a\bar{e}donis$; (3) in Greek compounds in $p\bar{u}s$ or pus: $trip\bar{u}s$ (odis), Oedipus.
- III. E, usually short in the increments of declension, is LONG in the first increment—
- 1. Of Declension V.: $di\bar{e}\bar{\iota}$, $di\bar{e}rum$, $di\bar{e}bus$, $r\bar{e}bus$. But in the Genitive and Dative Singular sometimes short after a consonant: $fid\bar{e}\bar{\iota}$, $sp\bar{e}\bar{\iota}$.
- Of nouns in ēn, mostly Greek: lien, lienis; Sīrēn, Sīrēnis. So Aniö, Aniēnis.
- 3. Of Celtiber, Iber, vēr, hērēs, locuplēs, mercēs, quies, inquies, requies, plebs, lēx, rēx, ālēc, ālēx, vervēx.
- 4. Of a few Greek words in ès and èr: lebes, lebetis; crâter, crâteris. Except āer and aether.
- IV. \mathbf{I} , usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment—
 - Of most words in ix: rādīx, rādīcis; fēlīx, fēlīcis.²
 - 2. Of dīs, glīs, līs, vīs, Quirīs, Samnīs.
 - 3. Of delphin, and a few rare Greek words.
 - Note.-For quantity of i in the ending ius, see 577, 9.
- V. U, usually short in the increments of declension, is long in the first increment—
- Of nouns in ūs with the Genitive in ūris, ūtis, ūdis: jūs, jūris; salūs, salūtis; palūs, palūdis.³
 - Of fūr, frūx, lūx, plūs, Pollūx.

¹ See p. 342, foot-note 5.

² But short in appendix, calix, Cilix, filix, fornix, nix, pix, salix, strix, and a few others, chiefly proper names.

But short in intercus, Ligus, pecus.

Increments of Conjugation.

586. In the Increments of Conjugation (583), a, e, and o are long; i and u short:

amāmus, amēmus, amātōte; regimus, sumus.

Note 1.—In ascertaining the increments of the irregular verbs, ferō, volŏ, and their compounds, the full form of the second person, feris, volis, etc., must be used. Thus in ferēbam and volēbam, the increments are rē and lē.

Note 2.—In ascertaining the increments of reduplicated forms (255, I.), the re-

duplication is not counted. Thus dedimus has but one increment, di.

- I. A, usually Long in the increments of conjugation, is short in the first increment of $d\bar{o}$: dare, dabam, circumdabam.
 - II. E, usually long in the increments of conjugation, is short before r-
- 1. In the tenses in ram, rim, rō: amāveram, amāverim, amāverō; rēxerat, rēxerit.
- In the first increment of the Present and Imperfect of Conjugation III.: regere, regeris, regerem, regerer.
 - 3. In the Future ending beris, bere: amāberis or -ere, monēberis.
- 4. Rarely in the Perfect ending erunt: steterunt for steterunt; see 236, note; also Systole, 608, VI.
- III. I, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is rong, except before a vowel—
- 1. In the first increment of Conjugation IV., except imus of the Perfect: audire, audivi, auditum; sentire, sentimus; sensimus (Perfect).
- 2. In Conjugation III., in the first increment of Perfects and Supines in $\bar{\imath}v\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{\imath}tum$ (278), and of the parts derived from them (except *imus* of the Perfect: $tr\bar{\imath}vimus$): $cup\bar{\imath}v\bar{\imath}$, $cup\bar{\imath}verat$, $cup\bar{\imath}tus$; $pet\bar{\imath}v\bar{\imath}$, $pet\bar{\imath}tus$; $capess\bar{\imath}v\bar{\imath}$, $capess\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}urus$. $G\bar{\alpha}v\bar{\imath}sus$ from $gaude\bar{\imath}$ follows the same analogy.

3. In the endings imus and itis of the Present Subjunctive: simus, sitis;

velīmus, velītis (240, 3).

- 4. In nölite, nölitö, nölitöte, and in the different persons of ibam, ibō, from eō (295).
- 5. Sometimes in the endings rimus and ritis of the Future Perfect and Perfect Subjunctive: amāverimus, amāveritis.
- IV. U, usually short in the increments of conjugation, is long in the Supine and the parts formed from it: volūtum, volūtūrus, amātūrus.

IV. QUANTITY OF DERIVATIVE ENDINGS.

- 587. The most important derivative endings may be classified according to quantity as follows:
 - I. Derivative endings with a Long Penult:
 - 1. ābrum, ācrum, ātrum: flābrum, simulācrum, arātrum.

- 2. ēdő, īdő, ūdő; āgő, īgő, ūgő:
- dulcēdŏ, cupīdŏ, sōlitūdŏ; vorāgŏ, orīgŏ, aerūgŏ.
- 3. āis, ēis, ōis, ōtis, īnē, ōnē—in patronymics:1
- Ptolemāis, Chrysēis, Mīnois, Icariotis, Nērīnē, Acrisionē. 4. ēla, īle; ālis, ēlis, ūlis:
- querēla, ovīle; mortālis, fidēlis, curūlis.
- 5. ānus, ēnus, ōnus, ūnus; āna, ēna, ōna, ūna: urbānus, egēnus, patronus, tribūnus; membrāna, habēna, annona, lacūna.
 - 6. āris, ārus; ōrus, ōsus; āvus, īvus:
 - salūtāris, avārus; canorus, animosus; octāvus, aestīvus.
- 7. ātus, ētus, ītus, ōtus, ūtus; ātim, ītim, ūtim; ētum, ēta:² ālātus, facētus, turrītus, aegrōtus, cornūtus; singulātim, virītim, tribūtim; quercētum, monēta.
 - 8. ēnī, īnī, ōnī—in distributives: septēnī, quīnī, octōnī.
 - II. Derivative endings with a Short Penult-
 - 1. adēs, iadēs, idēs—in patronymics:3
 - Aenēadēs, Lāertiadēs, Tantalidēs.
 - 2. iacus, icus, idus:4
 - Corinthiacus, modicus, cupidus.
- 3. olus, ola, olum; ulus, ula, ulum; culus, cula, culum—in diminutives:

fīliolus, fīliola, atriolum; hortulus, virgula, oppidulum; flōsculus, particula, mūnusculum.

- 4. etās, itās—in nouns; iter, itus—in adverbs: pietās, vēritās; fortiter, dīvīnitus.
- 5. ātilis, ilis, bilis—in verbals; inus—in adjectives denoting material or time: 5

versātilis, docilis, amābilis; adamantinus, cedrinus, crāstinus, diūtinus.

Note 1.—His in adjectives from nouns usually has the penult long: cīvilis, hostilis, puerilis, virilis.

NOTE 2.—Inus denoting characteristic (330) usually has the penult long: caninus, equinus, marinus.

¹ Except Danais, Phōcais, Thēbais, Nērēis.

² Except (1) anhēlitus, fortuītus, grātuitus, hālitus, hospitus, spīritus; (2) adfatim, statim, and adverbs in itus, as dīvīnitus; and (8) participles provided for by 586.

³ Except (1) those in ides from nouns in eus and es: as, Pelides (Peleus), Neo-elides (Neocles); and (2) Amphiarūides, Amyclides, Belides, Coronides, Lycurgides.

⁴ Except amīcus, anticus, aprīcus, mendīcus, postīcus, pudīcus.

⁵ Except mātūtīnus, repentīnus, vespertīnus.

III. Derivative endings with a Long Antepenult:

- āceus, ūceus, āneus, ārius, ārium, ōrius:
 rosāceus, pannūceus, subitāneus, cibārius, columbārium, cēnsōrius.
- ābundus, ācundus; ābilis, ātilis, āticus: mīrābundus, īrācundus; amābilis, versātilis, aquāticus.
- 3. āgintā, īgintī, ēsimus—in numerals: nōnāgintā, vīgintī, centēsimus.
- imōnia, imōnium; tōrius, sōrius; tōria, tōrium: querimōnia, alimōnium; amātōrius, cēnsōrius; vīctōria, audītōrium.
- IV. Derivative endings with a Short Antepenult:
- ibilis, itūdŏ, olentus, ulentus: crēdibilis, sōlitūdŏ, vīnolentus, opulentus.
- 2. uriō—in desideratives: ēsuriō, ēmpturiō, parturiō.

V. QUANTITY OF STEM-SYLLABLES.

588. All simple verbs in $i\bar{o}$ of the Third Conjugation (217) have the stem-syllable ¹ short:

capiō, cupiō, faciō, fodiō, fugiō.

589. Most verbs which form the Perfect in $u\bar{\imath}$ have the stem-syllable short:

domō, secō, habeō, moneō, alō, colō.

Note.—Pono, debeo, floreo, pareo, and several inceptive verbs, are exceptions.

590. Dissyllable Perfects and Supines have the first syllable long, unless short by position:

juvo, jūvī, jūtum; foveo, fovī, fotum.

1. Eight Perfects and ten Supines have the first syllable short:

bibī, dedī, fidi, liquī,2 scidī, stetī, stitī, tulī; citum, datum, itum, litum, quitum, raturu, rutum, satum, situm, statum.2

591. Trisyllabic Reduplicated Perfects have the first two syllables short:

cado, cecidi; cano, cecini; disco, didici.

Nore 1.—Caedo has cecidi in distinction from cecidi from cado.

Note 2.—The second syliable may be made long by position: cucurri, momordi.

592. In general, inflected forms retain the quantity of stem-syllables unchanged: 3

1 That is, the syllable preceding the characteristic.

² Liquī from liqueō; linquō has līquī. Statum from sistō; stō has stātum.

But see Dissyllabic Perfects and Supines, 590.

avis, avem; nūbēs, nūbium; levis, levior, levissimus; moneō, monēbam, monuī.

Note 1.—Position may, however, affect the quantity: ager, agrī; possum, potuī; solvō, solūtum; volvō, volūtum.¹

Note 2.—Gignō gives genuī, genitum, and pōnō, posuī, positum.

593. Derivatives generally retain the quantity of the stem-syllables of their primitives:

bonus, bonitās; timeo, timor; animus, animosus; cīvis, cīvicus; cūra, cūro.

1. Words formed from the same root sometimes show a variation in the quantity of stem-syllables:

dicō,	dīcō,	persono,	persona,
dux, ducis, .	dūcō,	rego,	rex, regis, regula,
fidēs,	fīdō,	secus,	sēcius,
homŏ,	hūmānus,	sedeō,	sēdēs, sēdulus,
lateō,	lāterna,	serō,	sēmen,
legō,	lēx, lēgis,	sopor,	sopio,
macer,	mācero,	suspicor,	suspīciŏ,
moveō,	möbilis,	tegō.	tēgula,
nota,	nōtum,	vadum,	vādō,
odium,	ōdī,	vocō,	vōx, vōcis.

Note 1.—This change of quantity in some instances is the result of contraction, as movibilis, moibilis, mobilis, and in others it serves to distinguish words of the same orthography, as the verbs legis, legēs, regēs, regēs, sedēs, from the nouns lēgis, lēgēs, rēgis, rēgēs, sēdēs, or the verbs dūcis, dūcēs, fīdēs, from the nouns ducis, ducēs, flāēs.

Note 2.—A few derivatives shorten the long vowel of the primitive: ācer, acerbus; lūceō, lucerna; mōlēs, molestus.

594. Compounds generally retain the quantity of their elements: ante-fero, de-fero, de-daco, in-aequalis, pro-daco.

- 1. The change of a vowel or diphthong does not affect the quantity: de-ligo (lego), oc-cido (cado), oc-cido (caedo).
- 2. The Inseparable Prepositions $d\bar{\imath}$, $s\bar{e}$, and $v\bar{e}$ are long, re short; ne sometimes long and sometimes short:

dīdūcō, sēdūcō, vēcors, redūcō; nēdum, nefās:

Note 1.-Di is short in dirimo and disertus.

Nore 2.—Nē is long in nēdum, nēmő, nēquam, nēquāquam, nēquāquam, nēquitia, and nēve. In other words it is short.

Note 3.—Re is sometimes lengthened in a few words: $r\tilde{e}ligi\tilde{o}$, $r\tilde{e}liquiae$, $r\tilde{e}perit$, $r\tilde{e}pulit$, $r\tilde{e}tulit$, etc.

- 3. In a few words the quantity of the second element is changed. Thus— Jūrō gives -jerō; nōtus, -nitus; nūbō, -nuba: dē-jerō, cōg-nitus, prō-nuba.
- 4. Prae in composition is usually short before a vowel: praeacūtus, prae-ūstus.
 - 5. Pro is short in the following words:

¹ Here the first syllable is short in ager, but common in agrī (578); long in possum, solvō, volvō (576, II.), but short in potuē, solūtum, and volūtum.

procella, procul, profānus, profūrī, profectō, profestus, proficiscor, profiteor, profugiō, profugus, profundus, pronepōs, proneptis, protervus, and in most Greek words, as prophēta; generally also in profundo, propagō, propagō, propagō, profectoro, profecto

6. At the end of a verbal stem compounded with facio or fio, e is generally short:

calefació, calefió, labefació, patefació.

- 7. I is usually long in the first part of the compounds of dies: merīdies, prīdie, postrīdie, cotīdie, trīduum.
- O is long in contrō-, intrō-, retrō-, and quandō- in composition: contrōversia, intrōdūcō, retrōvertō, quandōque; but quandōquidem.
- 9. The quantity of the final i in $ib\bar{i}$, $ub\bar{i}$, and $ut\bar{i}$ is often changed in composition:

ibīdem, ibīque; ubīque, ubīnam, ubivīs, ubīcunque, necubi, sīcubi; utinam, utique, sīcuti.

10. Hodie, quasi, quoque, and siquidem have the first syllable short.

595. The Quantity of Stem-Syllables in cases not provided for by any rules now given will be best learned from the Dictionary. By far the larger number of such syllables will be found to be short. For convenience of reference, a list of the most important primitives with long stem-syllables is added:

ācer	cēlō	dēleō	fortūna	lēnis
adulor	cēra	dīcō (ere)	frētus	lētum
āēr	cicāda	dīrus	fūmus	liber (era, erum)
āla	cīvis	dīves	fūnis	lībō
ālea	clāmō	dīvus	fūnus	līlium
altāre	clārus	donec	füror (ārī)	līmen
amārus	clāvus	dōnum	glēba	līmes
ancile	clēmēns	důcō	gloria	līnum
anhēlus	clīvus	dűdum	grämen	līveō
antīquus	codex	dūrus	grātus	lōrum
āra	comis	extrēmus	hāmus	lūdō
ārea	cōmō	fāgus	hērēs	lūgeō
āreō	conor	fāma	hērōs	lümen
āter	conus	fānum	hōra	lūna
avēna	copia	fārī	īcō	mālō
bīlis	coram	fēcundus	imāgŏ	māne
brūma	corona	fēlīx	inānis	mānēs
būbŏ	crăter	femina	īra	mānō
cacumen	crātēs	fētus	jānua	måter
cālīgŏ	crēber	fīdō	jūcundus	mātūrus
caminus	crēdō	fīgō	jūrō	mēta
cānus	crīnis	fīlius	lābor (ī)	mētior
caper	crūdus	filum	lämentum	mīles
carina	cura	finis	lāna	miror
cārus	cūria	flāvus	lātus (a, um)	mītis
cēdō (ere)	dēbeō	flümen	lego (are)	mõlēs

¹ Including a few derivatives and compounds.

műgeő	ōtium	püber	sēdō	tōtus .
mūniō	pāgus	pūnio	serēnus	trūdō
mūnus	palor	pūrus	sērus	über
mūrus	pānis	quālis	sīdō	ūdus
mūsa	pāreō	rādīx	sincērus	ůmeō
mūtō	penātēs	rādō	sōlor	ūnus
mūtus	perītus	rāmus	sõlus	ūrō
nāris	pīlum	rārus	sõpiõ	ütor
nāvis	pīnus	rēmus	spīca	ūva
nīdus	plānus	rīdeō	spīna	űvidus
nītor (ī)	plēnus	rīpa	spīrō	vādō
nōdus	plūma	rītus	spūma	vānus
nōnus	poěta	rīvus	squāleō	vātēs
nūbēs	pōmum	rōbur	stīpō	vēlōx
nūbō	pōne	rōdō	strāgēs	vēlum
nūdus	pōnō	rūga	strēnuus	vēna
nūtō	pōtō	rūmor	strīdeō	venēnum
ōlim	prātum	rūpēs	sūdō	vēnor
ōmen	prāvus	sānus	tābēs	vērus
opācus	prīmus	scălae	tālis	vīlis
opīmus	prīvus	. serībō	tēlum	vīnum
ōra	prōmō	scūtum	tēmŏ	vīvō
ōrō	prōra	sēdēs	tībia	

CHAPTER II.

VERSIFICATION.

SECTION I.

GENERAL VIEW OF THE SUBJECT.

596. Latin Versification is based upon QUANTITY. Syllables are combined into certain metrical groups called Feet, and feet, singly or in pairs, are combined into Verses.

1. In quantity or time the unit of measure is the short syllable, indicated either by a curve \smile or by an eighth note in music, \nearrow . A long syllable

¹ Modern versification is based upon Accent. An English verse is a regular combination of accented and unaccented syllables, but a Latin verse is a similar combination of long and short syllables. The rhythmic accent or ictus (599) in Latin depends entirely upon quantity. Compare the following lines:

Tell' me	not', in	mourn'-ful	num'-bers,
Life' is	but' an	emp'-ty	dream'.
Trū'-di-	tur' di-	ēs' di-	ē'.
At' fi-	des' et	in'-ge-	nī'.

Observe that in the English lines the accent or ictus falls upon the same syllables as in prose, while in the Latin it falls uniformly upon long syllables. On Latin Versification, see Ramsay's 'Latin Prosody'; Schmidt's 'Rhythmik und Metrik,' translated by Professor White; Christ's 'Metrik,'

has in general twice the value of a short syllable, and is indicated either by the sign —, or by a quarter note in music, . This unit of measure is also called a *time* or *mora*.

Note 1.—A long syllable is sometimes prolonged so as to have the value (1) of three short syllables, indicated by the sign \sqsubseteq , or \downarrow ; or (2) of four short syllables, indicated by \sqcup , or \downarrow .

Note 2.—A long syllable is sometimes shortened so as to have the value of a short syllable, indicated by the sign >, or . A syllable thus used is said to have *irrational* time.

597. The feet of most frequent occurrence in the best Latin poets are—

I. FEET OF FOUR TIMES OR FOUR MORAE.

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Dactyl, one long and two short, --- definition carmina. Spondee, two long syllables, -- definition lèges.
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II. FEET OF THREE TIMES OR THREE MORAE.

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Trochee,<sup>2</sup> one long and one short, — lègis.
Iambus, one short and one long, — parëns.
Tribrach, three short syllables, — dominus.
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Note 1.-To these may be added the following:

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Pyrrhic,
          \cup
                     pater.
                                      Ditrochee.
                                                    _ _ _ _
                                                               cīvitātis.
Anapaest, UU -
                                                               praeceptores.
                     bonitās.
                                      Dispondee,
                                                   ____
Bacchīus,
          U -- --
                     dolores.
                                      Greater Ionic, ----
                                                               sententia.
Cretic,
          _ _ _
                     mīlitēs.
                                      Lesser Ionic.
                                                   -
                                                               adolēscēns.
Dijambus. - - - amoenitās.
                                      Choriambus,
                                                               impatiens.3
```

Note 2.—A Dipody is a group of two feet; a Tripody, of three; a Tetrapody, of four, etc. A Trihemimeris is a group of three half feet, i. e., a foot and a half; a Penthemimeris, of two and a half; a Hephthemimeris, of three and a half, etc.

598. METRICAL EQUIVALENTS.—A long syllable may be resolved into two short syllables, as equivalent to it in quantity, or two short syllables may be contracted into a long syllable. The forms thus produced are metrical equivalents of the original feet.

Note.—Thus the Dactyl becomes a Spondee by contracting the two short syllables into one long syllable; the Spondee becomes a Dactyl by resolving the second syllable, or an Anapaest by resolving the first. Accordingly, the Dactyl, the Spondee, and the Anapaest are metrical equivalents. In like manner the Iambus, the Trochee, and the Tribrach are metrical equivalents.

¹ See foot-note 1, p. 849.

² Sometimes called Choree.

² The feet here mentioned as having four syllables are only compounds of dissyllable feet. Thus the *Diiambus* is a double Iambus; the *Diirochee*, a double Trochee; the *Dispondee*, a double Spondee; the *Greater Ionic*, a Spondee and a Pyrrhic; the *Lesser Ionic*, a Pyrrhic and a Spondee; the *Choriambus*, a Trochee (Choree) and an Iambus.

- 1. In certain kinds of verse admitting *irrational* time (596, 1, note 2), Spondees, Dactyls, and Anapaests are shortened to the time of a Trochee or of an Iambus, and thus become metrical equivalents of each of these feet.
- 1) A Spondee used for a Trochee is called an Irrational Trochee, and is marked >.
- 2) A Spondee used for an Iambus is called an Irrational Iambus, and is marked > -.
- 4) An Anapaest used for an Iambus is called a Cyclic Anapaest, and is marked $\smile \smile$.
- 599. ICTUS OR RHYTHMIC ACCENT.—As in the pronunciation of a word one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called accent, so in the pronunciation of a metrical foot one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called Rhythmic Accent or Ictus.
- 1. Feet consisting of both long and short syllables have the ictus uniformly on the long syllables, unless used as equivalents for other feet.

Note.—Thus the Dactyl and the Trochee have the ictus on the first syllable; the Anapaest and the Iambus on the last.

2. Equivalents take the ictus of the feet for which they are used.

Note 1.—Thus the Spondee, when used for the Dactyl, takes the ictus of the Dactyl —i. e., on the first syllable; but when used for the Anapaest, it takes the ictus of the Anapaest—i. e., on the last syllable.

Note 2.—Feet consisting entirely of long or entirely of short syllables are generally used as equivalents, and are accented accordingly.

Nore 3.—When two short syllables of an equivalent take the place of an accented long syllable of the original foot, the ictus properly belongs to both of these syllables, but is marked upon the first. Thus a Tribrach used for an Iambus is marked $\smile \smile$.

- 600. Arsis and Thesis.—The accented part of each foot is called the Arsis (raising), and the unaccented part, the Thesis (lowering).
- 601. Verses.—A verse is a line of poetry (596). It has one characteristic or fundamental foot, which determines the ictus for the whole verse.

Note 1.—Thus every dactylic verse has the ictus on the first syllable of each foot, because the Dactyl has the ictus on that syllable.

¹ Greek writers on versification originally used the terms $\tilde{a}\rho\sigma\iota_{5}$ and $\theta\epsilon\sigma\iota_{5}$ of raising and putting down the foot in marching or in beating time. Thus the Thesis was the accented part of the foot, and the Arsis the unaccented part. The Romans, however, applied the terms to raising and lowering the voice in reading. Thus Arsis came to mean the accented part of the foot, and Thesis the unaccented part. The terms have now been so long and so generally used in this sense that it is not deemed advisable to attempt to restore them to their original signification.

- Note 2.-Two verses sometimes unite and form a compound verse; see 628, X.
- NOTE 3.—Metre means measure, and is variously used, sometimes designating the measure or quantity of syllables, and sometimes the foot or measure 1 of a verse.
- 602. CAESURA OR CAESURAL PAUSE.—Most Latin verses are divided metrically into two nearly equal parts, each of which forms a rhythmic series. The pause, however slight, which naturally separates these parts is called—
- 1. A Caesura, or a Caesural Pause, when it occurs within a foot; see 611.
- 2. A Diaeresis, when it occurs at the end of a foot; see 611, 2 and 3.

Note.—Some verses consist of three parts thus separated by caesura or diagresis, while some consist of a single rhythmic series.³

- 603. The full metrical name of a verse consists of three parts. The first designates the characteristic foot, the second gives the number of feet or measures, and the third shows whether the verse is complete or incomplete. Thus—
- 1. A Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic is a dactylic verse of six feet (Hexameter), all of which are complete (Acatalectic).
- 2. A Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic is a trochaic verse of two measures (Dimeter), the last of which is incomplete (Catalectic).

NOTE 1.—A verse with a Dactyl as its characteristic foot is called Dactylic; with a Trochee, Trochaic; with an Iambus, Iambic, etc.

Note 2.—A verse consisting of one measure is called Monometer; of two, Dimeter; of three, Trimeter; of four, Tetrameter; of five, Pentameter; of six, Hexameter.

NOTE 3.—A verse which closes with a complete measure is called Acatalectic; 4 with an incomplete measure, Catalectic; 4 with an excess of syllables, Hypermetrical.4

NOTE 4.—The term Acatalectic is often omitted, as a verse may be assumed to be complete unless the opposite is stated.

Note 5.—A Catalectic verse is said to be catalectic in syllabam, in disyllabum, or in trisyllabum, according as the incomplete foot has one, two, or three syllables.

NOTE 6.—Verses are sometimes briefly designated by the number of feet or measures which they contain. Thus Hexameter (six measures) sometimes designates the Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic, and Senarius (six feet), the Iambic Trimeter Acatalectic.

604. Verses are often designated by names derived from celebrated poets.

Note 1.—Thus Alcaic is derived from Alcaeus; Archilochian, from Archilochus; Sapphic, from Sapphō; Glyconic, from Glycōn, etc.

¹ In dactylic verses a *measure* is a single foot, but in trochaic and iambic verses it is a dipody or a pair of feet.

² Caesūra (from $caed\bar{o}$, to cut) means a cutting; it cuts or divides the foot and the verse into parts.

³ A verse consisting of a single series is called *Monocolon*; of two, *Dicolon*; of three, *Tricolon*.

⁴ From the Greek ἀκατάληκτος, καταληκτικός, and ὑπέρμετρος.

- NOTE 2.—Verses sometimes receive a name from the kind of subjects to which they were applied: as *Heroic*, applied to heroic subjects; *Paroemiac*, to proverbs, etc.
- 605. The Final Syllable of a verse may generally be either long or short at the pleasure of the poet.
- 606. A STANZA is a combination of two or more verses of different metres into one metrical whole; see 631.

Note.—A stanza of two lines or verses is called a Distich; of three, a Tristich; of four, a Tetrastich.

607. RHYTHMICAL READING.—In reading Latin verse care must be taken to preserve the words unbroken, to show the quantity of the syllables, and to mark the poetical ictus.

Note.—Scanning consists in separating a poem or verse into the feet of which it is composed. 1

- 608. Figures of Prosody.—The ancient poets sometimes allowed themselves, in the use of letters and syllables, certain liberties generally termed Figures of Prosody.
- I. ELISION.—A final vowel, a final diphthong, or a final m with the preceding vowel, is generally elided 2 before a word beginning with a vowel or with h:

Mönstrum horrendum informe ingens, for Mönstrum horrendum informe ingens. Verg.

NOTE 1 .- For Exceptions, see Hiatus, II., below.

Note 2.—Final e in the interrogative ne is sometimes dropped before a consonant:

Pyrrhīn' connūbia servās? for Pyrrhīne connūbia servās? Verg.

NOTE 3.—In the early poets final s is often dropped before consonants:

Ex omnibu' rēbus, for ex omnibus rēbus. Lucr.

Note 4.—The elision of a final m with the preceding vowel is sometimes called Ecthlipsis.³

Note 5.—The elision of a final vowel or diphthong, or of a final m with the preceding vowel, is sometimes called Synaloepha, or, if at the end of a line, Synapheia.

- II. HATUS.—A final vowel or diphthong is sometimes retained before a word beginning with a vowel. Thus—
- 1. The interjections δ , heu, and $pr\bar{o}$ are not elided; see Verg., Aen., X., 18; Geor., II., 486.
- 2. Long vowels and diphthongs are sometimes retained, especially in the arsis of a foot; see Verg., Ec., III., 6; VII., 52.

¹ In school this is sometimes done in a purely mechanical way, sacrificing words to feet; but even this mechanical process is often useful to the beginner, as it makes him familiar with the poetical ictus.

² That is, partially suppressed. In reading, it should be lightly and indistinctly sounded, and blended with the following syllable, as in English poetry:

[&]quot;The eternal years of God are hers."

From the Greek εκθλιψις, συναλοιφή, and συνάφεια.

Note 1.—This is most common in proper names.

NOTE 2.—Vergil employs this form of hiatus more freely than the other Latin poets, and yet the entire Aeneid furnishes only a short list of examples.

Note 3.—In the thesis a final long vowel or diphthong is sometimes shortened before a short vowel instead of being elided; see Verg., Aen., III., 211; VI., 507.

Note 4.—Hiatus with a short final vowel is rare, but occurs even in Vergil; see Aen., I., 405; Ec., II., 58.

III. Synaeresis.—Two syllables are sometimes contracted into one: aurea, deinde, deinceps, tidem, tisdem, eaedem, prohibeat (pronounced proibeat).

Note 1.—In the different parts of dēsum, ee is generally pronounced as one syllable: dēesse, dēest, dēerat, dēerit, etc.; so ei in the verb anteed: antēire, antēirem, antēis, antēit.

Note 2.—I and u before vowels are sometimes used as consonants with the sound of y and w. Thus abiete and ariete become abyete and aryete; genua and tenues become genua and tenues.

Note 3.—In Plantus and Terence, Synaeresis is used with great freedom.

Note 4.—The contraction of two syllables into one is sometimes called Synizesis.

IV. Diaeresis.—In poetry, two syllables usually contracted into one are sometimes retained distinct:

aurā
īfor aurae, Orpheüs for Orpheūs, soluendus for solvendus, silva
 silva.

Note.—Diagresis properly means the resolution of one syllable into two, but the Latin poets seldom, if ever, actually make two syllables out of one. The examples generally explained by diagresis are only ancient forms, used for effect or convenience.

V. DIASTOLE.—A syllable usually short is sometimes long, especially in the arsis of a foot:

Prīamidēs for Priamidēs.

Note 1.—This poetic license occurs chiefly in proper names and in final syllables.

Note 2.—Vergil uses this license quite freely. He lengthens que in sixteen instances.

VI. Systole.—A syllable usually long is sometimes short:

tulerunt for tulerunt, steterunt for steterunt (236, note), vide'n for videsne.

Note.—This poetic license occurs most frequently in final vowels and diphthongs.

VII. SYNCOPE.—An entire foot is sometimes occupied by a single long syllable; see 614.

SECTION II.

VARIETIES OF VERSE.

I. DACTYLIC HEXAMETER.

609. All Dactylic Verses consist of Dactyls and their metrical equivalents, Spondees. The ictus is on the first syllable of every foot.

610. The Dactylic Hexameter consists of six feet. The first four are either Dactyls or Spondees, the fifth a Dactyl, and the sixth a Spondee (605).² The scale is,³

Quadrupe- | dante pu- | trem soni- | tū quatit | ungula | campum. Verg. Arma vi- | rumque ca- | nō Trō- | jae quī | prīmus ab | ōrīs. Verg. Īnfan- | dum rē- | gīna ju- | bēs reno- | vāre do- | lōrem. Verg. Illī 5 in- | ter sē- | sē māg- | nā vī | bracchia | tollunt. Verg.

- 1. The scale of dactylic hexameters admits sixteen varieties, produced by varying the relative number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees. Thus a verse may contain—
 - 1) Five Dactyls and one Spondee, as in the first example above.
 - 2) Four Dactyls and two Spondees, admitting four different arrangements.
 - 3) Three Dactyls and three Spondees, admitting six different arrangements.
 - 4) Two Dactyls and four Spondees, admitting four different arrangements.
 - 5) One Dactyl and five Spondees, as in the fourth example.
- 2. Effect of Dactyls.—Dactyls produce a rapid movement, and are adapted to lively subjects. Spondees produce a slow movement, and are adapted to grave subjects. But generally the best effect is produced in successive lines by variety in the number and arrangement of Dactyls and Spondees.
 - 3. Spondaic Line.—The Hexameter sometimes takes a Spondee in the

² The Dactylic Hexameter in Latin is here treated as *Acatalectic*, as the Latin poets seem to have regarded the last foot as a genuine Spondee, thus making the measure

complete. See Christ, 'Metrik der Griechen und Römer,' pp. 110, 164.

s In this scale the sign' marks the ictus (599), and _ _ _ denotes that the original Dactyl, marked _ _ _ , may become by contraction a Spondee, marked _ _ _ , i. e., that a Spondee may be used for a Dactyl (598).

4 Expressed in musical characters, this scale is as follows:

969 | 969 | 969 | 969 | 96

The notation I means that, instead of the original measure II, the equivalent I may be used.

5 The final i of illi is elided; see 608, I.

⁶ With these lines of Vergil compare the following Hexameters from the Evangeline of Longfellow:

"This is the forest primeval; but where are the hearts that beneath it

Leaped like the roe, when he hears in the woodland the voice of the huntsman?"

¹ This is at once the most important and the most ancient of all the Greek and Roman metres. In Greece it attained its perfection in the poems of Homer. It was introduced into Italy in a somewhat imperfect form by the poet Ennius about the middle of the second century before Christ; but it was improved by Lucretius, Catullus, and others, until it attained great excellence in the works of the Augustan poets. The most beautiful and finished Latin Hexameters are found in the works of Oyid and Vergil.

fifth place. It is then called Spondaic, and generally has a Dactyl as its fourth foot:

Cāra de- | ūm sobo- | lēs māg- | num Jovis | incrē- | mentum. Verg.

NOTE.—In Vergil, spondaic lines are used much more sparingly than in the earlier poets, and generally end in words of three or four syllables, as in incrēmentum above.

611. CAESURA, OR CAESURAL PAUSE.—The favorite caesural pause of the Hexameter is after the arsis, or in the thesis, of the third foot:

Armā- | tī ten- | dunt; || it | clāmor et | agmine | factō. Verg. Īnfan- | dum, rē- | gīna, || ju- | bēs reno- | vāre do- | lōrem. Verg.

Note.—In the first line, the caesural pause, marked ||, is after tendunt, after the arsis of the third foot; and in the second line after $r\bar{e}g\bar{i}na$, in the thesis $(na\ ju)$ of the third foot. The former is called the Masculine Caesura, the latter the Feminine Caesura.⁴

1. The CAESURAL PAUSE is sometimes in the fourth foot, and then an additional pause is often introduced in the second:

Crēdide- | rim; | vēr | illud e- | rat, | vēr | māgnus a- | gēbat. Verg.

2. Bucolic Diaeresis.—A pause called the *Bucolic Diaeresis*, because originally used in the pastoral poetry of the Greeks, sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot:

Ingen- | tem cae- | lo soni- | tum dedit; | inde se- | cūtus. Verg.

Note.—The Bucolic Diaeresis was avoided by the best Latin poets, even in treating pastoral subjects. Vergil, even in his Bucolics, uses it very sparingly.

3. A DIMERESIS at the end of the third foot without any proper caesural pause is regarded as a blemish in the verse:

Pulveru- | lentus e- | quis furit; || omnēs | arma re- | quirunt. Verg.

² But Vergil has two spondaic lines ending et māgnīs dīs; see Aen., III., 12, and VIII., 679.

³ That is, the first rhythmic series ends at this point. This pause is always at the end of a word, and may be so very slight as in most cases not to interfere with the sense, even if no mark of punctuation is required; but the best verses are so constructed that the caesural pause coincides with a pause in the sense; see Christ, 'Metrik,' p. 184. According to some writers, the Dactylic Hexameter had its origin in the union of two earlier dactylic verses, and the caesural pause now marks the point of union; see Christ, p. 173.

4 The Masculine Caesura is also called the Strong, or the Syllabic, Caesura, the Feminine the Weak, or the Trochaic, Caesura. Caesuras are often named from the place which they occupy in the line. Thus a caesura after the arsis of the second foot is called Trihemimeral; after the arsis of the third, Penthemimeral; after the arsis of the fourth, Hephthemimeral.

6 Also called the Bucolic Caesura, as the term caesura is often made to include diagresis.

A single poem of Catullus, about half as long as a book of the Aeneid, contains more spondaic lines than all the works of Vergil.

4. The ending of a word within a foot always produces a caesura. A line may therefore have several caesuras, but generally only one of these is marked by any perceptible pause:

Arma vi- | rumque ca- | no, || Tro- | jae qui | primus ab | oris. Verg.

Note.—Here there is a caesura in every foot except the last, but only one of these, that after $can\bar{o}$, in the third foot, has the caesural pause.

5. The caesura, with or without the pause, is an important feature in every hexameter. A line without it is prosaic in the extreme:

Romae | moenia | terruit | impiger | Hannibal | armīs. Enn.

NOTE 1.—The Penthemimeral 2 caesura has great power to impart melody to the verse, but the best effect is produced when it is aided by other caesuras, as above.

Note 2.- A happy effect is often produced-

1) By combining the feminine caesura in the third foot with the hephthemimeral and the trihemimeral:

Donec e- | ris fe- | līx, || mul- | tos nume- | rabis a- | mīcos. Verg.

2) By combining the hephthemimeral with the trihemimeral:

Inde to- | ro pater | Aene- | as sic | orsus ab | alto. Verg.

NOTE 3.—The union of the feminine caesura with the trihemimeral, common in Greek, is somewhat rare in Latin, but it sometimes produces an harmonious verse:

Praecipi- | tat, sua- | dentque ca- | dentia | sīdera | somnos. Verg.

NOTE 4.—In the last two feet of the verse there should in general be no caesura whatever, unless it falls in the thesis of the fifth foot; but when that foot contains two entire words, a caesura is admissible after the arsis.

- 612. The ictus often falls upon unaccented syllables. Thus-
- 1. In the first, second, and fourth feet of the verse it falls sometimes upon accented and sometimes upon unaccented syllables; see examples under 610.
- 2. In the third foot it generally falls upon an unaccented syllable; see examples under 610.
- 3. In the fifth and sixth feet it generally falls upon accented syllables; see examples under 610.
- 613. The LAST WORD OF THE HEXAMETER is generally either a dissyllable or a trisyllable; see examples under 610 and 611.3
- ¹ The caesura with the pause is variously called the chief caesura, the caesura of the verse, the caesura of the rhythm, etc. In distinction from this any other caesura may be called a caesura, a caesura of the foot, or a minor caesura.

² See p. 356, foot-note 4.

³ The learner should be informed that the niceties of structure which belong to finished Latin hexameters must be sought only in the poems of Vergil and Ovid. The happiest disposition of caesuras, the best adjustment of the poetical ictus to the prose accent, and the most approved structure in the closing measures of the verse, can not be expected in the rude numbers of Ennius, in the scientific discussions of Lucretius, or even in the familiar Satires of Horace. Those interested in the peculiarities of Latin hexameters in different writers will find a discussion of the subject in Lucian Müller's work, 'Dō rō metricā počtārum Latinōrum praeter Plautum et Terentium librī septem.'

Note 1 .- Spondaic lines are exceptions; see 610, 3, note.

Note 2.—Two monosyllables at the end of a line are not particularly objectionable, and sometimes even produce a happy effect:

Praecipi- | tant cu- | rae, || tur- | bătaque | funere | mens est. Verg.

Note 3.—Est, even when not preceded by another monosyllable, may stand at the end of a line.

NOTE 4.—A single monosyllable, except est, is not often used at the end of the line, except for the purpose of emphasis or humor:

Parturi- | unt mon- | tes, || nas- | cetur | ridicu- | lus mus. Hor.

NOTE 5.—In Vergil, twenty-one lines, apparently hypermetrical (603, note 3), are supposed to elide a final vowel or a final *em* or *um* before the initial vowel of the next line; see Aen., I., 332; Geor., I., 295. See also 603, I., note 5.

II. OTHER DACTYLIC VERSES.

614. DACTYLIC PENTAMETER. —The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts separated by a diaeresis. Each part consists of two Dactyls and a long syllable. The Spondee may take the place of the Dactyl in the first part, but not in the second:

615. ELEGIAC DISTICH.—The Elegiac Distich consists of the Hexameter followed by the Pentameter:

Sēmise | pulta vi- | rūm || cur- | vīs feri- | untur a- | rātrīs Ossa, ru- | īnō- | sās || occulit | herba do- | mūs. *Ovid*.

NOTE 1.—In reading the Elegiac Distich, the Pentameter, including pauses, should of course occupy the same time as the Hexameter.

NOTE 2.—Elegaic composition should be characterized by grace and elegance. Both members of the distich should be constructed in accordance with the most rigid rules of metre. The sense should be complete at the end of the couplet. Ovid furnishes us the best specimens of this style of composition.

616. The DACTYLIC TETRAMETER is identical with the last four feet of the Hexameter:

Ībimus | ō soci- | ī, comi- | tēsque. Hor.

Thus, in reading Pentameters, a pause may be introduced after the long syllable in the third foot, or that foot may be lengthened so as to fill the measure.

¹ The name *Pentameter* is founded on the ancient division of the line into five feet; the first and second being Dactyls or Spondees, the third a Spondee, the fourth and fifth Anapaests.

² In musical characters:

Note.—In compound verses, as in the *Greater Archilochian*, the tetrameter in composition with other metres has a Dactyl in the fourth place; see 628, X.

617. The DACTYLIC TRIMETER CATALECTIC is identical with the second half of the Dactylic Pentameter:

Arbori- | busque co- | mae. Hor.

Note.—The Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic is also known as the Lesser Archilochian.

III. TROCHAIC VERSE.

618. The TROCHAIC DIPODY, the measure in Trochaic verse, consists of two Trochees, the second of which is sometimes irrational (598, 1, 1))—i. e., it has the form of a Spondee with the time of a Trochee:

Note 1.—By the ordinary law of equivalents (598), a Tribrach $\smile \smile$ may take the place of the Trochee $- \smile$, and an apparent Anapaest $- \smile \smile$ the place of the Irrational Trochee $- \smile \smile$. In proper names a cyclic Dactyl $- \smile \smile$ (598, 1, 3)) may occur in either foot.

Note 2.—In the Trochaic Dipody, the first foot has a heavier ictus than the second.

Note 3.—A syllable is sometimes prefixed to a Trochaic verse. A syllable thus used is called *Anacrusis* (upward beat), and is separated from the following measure by the mark:

619. The Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic consists of two Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. In Horace it admits no equivalents, and has the following scale:

Aula dīvi- | tem manet. Hor.

NOTE .- A Trochaic Tripody occurs in the Greater Archilochian; see 628, X.

1. The Alcaic Enneasyllabic verse which forms the third line in the Alcaic stanza is a Trochaic Dimeter with Anacrusis:

Pu- : er quis ex au- | la capillis. Hor.

620. The TROCHAIC TETRAMETER CATALECTIC consists of four Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. There is a *diaeresis* (602, 2) at the end of the fourth foot, and the incomplete dipody admits no equivalents:

Prīmus ad ci- | bum vocātur, || prīmō pulmen- | tum datur. Plaut.

¹ See 601, note 3, with foot-note.

² Thus in the second foot of a Trochaic Dipody the poet may use a Trochee, a Tribrach, a Spondee, or an Anapaest; but the Spondee and the Anapaest are pronounced in the same time as the Trochee or the Tribrach—i. e., they have irrational time.

³ Only the leading ictus of each dipody is here marked.

NOTE 1.—This is simply the union of two Trochaic Dimeters, the first acatalectic and the second catalectic, separated by diaeresis.

NOTE 2.—In Latin this verse is used chiefly in comedy, and accordingly admits great licence in the use of feet. The Irrational Trochee (598, 1, 1)) and its equivalents may occur in any foot except in the last dipody.

Note 3.—The Trochaic Tetrameter Acatalectic also occurs in the earlier poets:

Ipse summīs | saxīs fīxus || asperīs ē- | viscerātus. Enn.

IV. IAMBIC VERSE.

621. The IAMBIC DIPODY, the measure of Iambic verse, consists of two Iambi, the first of which is sometimes irrational (598, 1, 2))—i. e., it has the *form* of a Spondee with the *time* of an Iambus:

NOTE 1.—The Tribrach for the Iambus, and the Dactyl 2 or Anapaest 2 for the Irrational Iambus, are rare, except in comedy.

Note 2.—In the Ionic Dipody, the first foot has a heavier ictus than the second.

622. The IAMBIC TRIMETER, also called *Senarius*, consists of three Iambic Dipodies. The Caesura is usually in the third foot, but may be in the fourth:

Quid obserā- | tīs || auribus | fundis precēs? *Hor*. Neptūnus al- | tō || tundit hī- | bernus salō. *Hor*. Hās inter epu- | lās || ut juvat | pāstās ovēs. *Hor*.⁴

- 1. In Proper Names, a Cyclic Anapaest is admissible in any foot except the last, but must be in a single word.
- 2. In Horace the only feet freely admitted are the Iambus and the Spordee; their equivalents, the Tribrach, the Dactyl, and the Anapaest, are used very sparingly. The Tribrach never occurs in the fifth foot and only once in the first. The Anapaest occurs only twice in all.
- 3. In COMEDY great liberty is taken, and the Spondee and its equivalents are freely admitted in any foot except the last.

We' can make our | lives' sublime,
And', departing, | leave' behind us
Foot'prints on the | sands' of time."

² The Dactyl thus used has the time of an Iambus and is marked > ७ ∪; the Anapaest is cyclic (598, 1, 4), marked ∪ ∪ ∠.

³ This same scale, divided thus, $\geq | \angle \cup - \rangle | \angle \cup - \rangle | \angle \cup - \wedge$, represents Trochaic Trimeter Catalectic with Anacrusis. Thus all Iambic verses may be treated as Trochaic verses with Anacrusis.

4 Compare the English Alexandrine, the last line of the Spenserian stanza: When Phoe'bus lifts | his head' out of | the win'ter's wave.

¹ Compare the corresponding English measure, in which the two parts appear as separate lines:

"Lives' of great men | all' remind us

4. The Choliambus is a variety of *Iambic Trimeter* with a Trochee in the sixth foot: 1

Miser Catul- | le désinas | ineptire. Catul.

623. The Iambic Trimeter Catalectic occurs in Horace with the following scale:

Vocātus at- | que non vocā- | tus audit. Hor.

Note.—The Dactyl and the Anapaest are not admissible; the Tribrach occurs only in the second foot.

624. The IAMBIC DIMETER consists of two Iambic Dipodies:

Queruntur in | silvīs avēs. Hor. Imbrēs nivēs - | que comparat. Hor. Ast ego vicis - | sim rīserō. Hor.

Note 1.—Horace admits the Dactyl only in the first foot, the Tribrach only in the second, the Anapaest not at all.

Note 2.-Iambic Dimeter is sometimes catalectic.

625. The IAMBIC TETRAMETER consists of four Iambic Dipodies. It belongs chiefly to comedy:

Quantum intellex- | I modo senis || sententiam | de nuptils. Ter.

Note.—Iambic Tetrameter is sometimes catalectic:

Quot commodās | rēs attulī? || quot autem adē | mī cūrās. Ter.

V. IONIC VERSE.

626. The Ionic Verse in Horace consists entirely of Lesser Ionics. It may be either Trimeter or Dimeter:

Neque pūgnō | neque sēgnī | pede vīctus; Catus īdem | per apertum. *Hor*.

Note 1.—In this verse the last syllable is not common, but is often long only by position (p. 838, foot-note 3). Thus us in victus is long before c in catus.

NOTE 2.—The Ionic Tetrameter Catalectic, also called Sotadean Verse, occurs thiefly in comedy. It consists in general of Greater Ionics, but in Martial it has a Ditrochee as the third foot:

$$\angle - \cup \cup | \angle - \cup \cup | \angle \boxtimes \cup | \angle \boxtimes \overline{\wedge}$$

Hās cum gemi- | nā compede | dēdicat ca- | tēnās. *Mart*.

¹ Choliambus, or Scazon, means lame or limping Iambus, and is so called from its limping movement. It is explained as a Trochaic Trimeter Acatalectic with Anacrusis, and with syncope (608, VII.) in the fifth foot. The example here given may be represented thus: \bigcirc : $\triangle \bigcirc - \bigcirc$ $\triangle \bigcirc - \bigcirc$ $\triangle \bigcirc - \bigcirc$

VI. LOGAOEDIC VERSE.

627. Logacedic¹ Verse is a special variety of Trochaic Verse. The Irrational Trochee ∠>, the Cyclic Dactyl ∠ , and the Syncopated Trochee ∟ (608, VII.) are freely admitted. It has an apparently light ictus.²

Note.—Logacedic verses show great variety of form, but a few general types will indicate the character of the whole.

628. The following Logacedic verses appear in Horace:

I. The ADONIC:

II. The First Pherecratic 3 or the Aristophanic:

Note.—Pherecratic is the technical term applied to the regular Logacedic Tripody. It is called the First or Second Pherecratic according as its Dactyl occupies the first or the second place in the verse. In each form it may be acatalectic or catalectic:

In Logacedic verse the term basis or base, marked x, is sometimes applied to the foot or feet which precede the Cyclic Dactyl. Thus, in the Second Pherecratic, the first foot _> is the base.

III. The Second Glyconic 3 Catalectic:

NOTE 1.—Glyconic is the technical term applied to the regular Logacedic Tetrapody. It is called the First, Second, or Third Glyconic according as its Dactyl occupies the first, second, or third place in the verse. In each form it may be either acatalectic or catalectic. Note 2.—The Second Glyconic sometimes has a Syncope (608, VII.) in the third foot.

IV. The Lesser Asclepiadean sconsists of two Catalectic Pherecratics, a Second and a First:

- From λόγος, prose, and ἀοιδή, song, applied to verses which resemble prose.
- ² The free use of long syllables in the thesis causes the poetical ictus on the arsis to appear less prominent.
 - ³ Pherecratic, Glyconic, and Asclepiadean verses may be explained as Choriambic:

Pherecratic,
$$\angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \mid \Box \land$$

First Glyconic, $\angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \lor$
Asclepiadčan, $\angle > \mid \angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \angle \cup \cup \angle \mid \cup \angle \lor$

V. The Greater Asclepiadean consists of three catalectic verses, a Second Pherecratic, an Adonic, and a First Pherecratic:

Seu plu- | res hie- | mes, || seu tribu- | it || Juppiter | ulti- | mam. Hor.

VI. The LESSER SAPPHIC consists of a Trochaic Dipody and a First Pherecratic:

Namque | mē sil- | vā lupus | in Sa- | bīnā. Hor.

VII. The Greater Sapphic consists of two Catalectic Glyconics, a Third and a First with Syncope:

Inter | aequā- | lēs equi- | tat, || Gallica | nec lu- | pā- | tīs. Hor.

VIII. The Lesser Alcaic consists of two Cyclic Dactyls and two Trochees:

Purpure- | ō vari- | us co- | lore. Hor.

IX. The Greater Alcaic consists of a Trochaic Dipody with Anacrusis and a Catalectic First Pherecratic:

Vi- : des ut | alta | stet nive | candi- | dum. Hor.

X. The Greater Archilochian' consists of a Dactylic Tetrameter (616) followed by a Trochaic Tripody. The first three feet are either Dactyls or Spondees; the fourth, a Dactyl; and the last three, Trochees:

Vitae | summa bre- | vis spem | nos vetat, || incho- | are | longam. Hor.

NOTE.—This verse may be explained either as Logacedic or as Compound. With the first explanation, the Dactyls are cyclic and the Spondees have irrational time; with the second explanation, the first member of the verse has the Dactyl as its characteristic foot and the second member the Trochee; see 601, note 2.

629. The following Logacedic verses not used in Horace deserve mention:

I. The PHALAECIAN is a Logacedic Pentapody: 2

Non est | vivere, | sed va- | lere | vita. Mart.

¹ For the Lesser Archilochian, see 617, note.

² This verse differs from the Lesser Sapphic in having the Dactyl in the second foot, while the latter has the Dactyl in the third,

II. The SECOND PRIAPEAN consists of two Catalectic Second Glyconics with Syncope:

SECTION III.

THE VERSIFICATION OF THE PRINCIPAL LATIN POETS.

630. Vergil and Juvenal use the Dactylic Hexameter; Ovid, the Hexameter in his Metamorphoses and the Elegiac Distich in his Epistles and other works; Horace, the Hexameter in his Epistles and Satires, and a variety of metres in his Odes and Epodes.

LYRIC METRES OF HORACE.

631. For convenience of reference, an outline of the lyric metres of Horace is here inserted.

Stanzas of Four Verses or Lines.

I. ALCAIC STANZA.—First and second lines, Greater Alcaics (628, IX.); third, Trochaic Dimeter with Anacrusis (619, 1); fourth, Lesser Alcaic (628, VIII.):

In thirty-seven Odes: I., 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; II., 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; III., 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; IV., 4, 9, 14, 15.

II. SAPPHIC STANZA.—The first three lines, Lesser Sapphics (628, VI.); the fourth, Adonic (628, I.):

In twenty-six Odes: I., 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; II., 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; III., 8, 11, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; IV., 2, 6, 11; and Secular Hymn.

III. GREATER SAPPHIC STANZA.—First and third lines, First Glyconics Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (608, VII.); second and fourth lines, Greater Sapphics:

$$\left\{\begin{array}{c} 1.\\ 3. \end{array}\right\}$$
 $\left\{\begin{array}{c} - \\ - \\ \end{array}\right\}$ $\left\{\begin{array}{c} - \\ - \\ \end{array}\right\}$ $\left\{\begin{array}{c} - \\ - \\ \end{array}\right\}$

In Ode I., 8.

IV. FIRST ASCLEPIADEAN GLYCONIC STANZA.—The first three lines, Lesser Asclepiadeans (628, IV.); the fourth, Second Glyconic Catalectic (628, III.):

In nine Odes: I., 6, 15, 24, 33; II., 12; III., 10, 16; IV., 5, 12.

V. Second Asclepiadean Glyconic Stanza.—The first two lines, Lesser Asclepiadeans (628, IV.); the third, Second Glyconic Catalectic with Syncope in the third foot (628, III., note 2); the fourth, Second Glyconic Catalectic (628, III.):

$$\begin{array}{c|c} 1. \\ 2. \\ \end{array} \} -> | - \cup | - | | - \cup | - \cup | \cong \Lambda$$

$$\begin{array}{c|c} 3. & - > | - \cup | - | \cong \Lambda \\ \end{array}$$

In seven Odes: I., 5, 14, 21, 23; III., 7, 13; IV., 13.

VI. GLYCONIC ASCLEPIADEAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Second Glyconics Catalectic (628, III.); second and fourth, Lesser Asclepiadeans (628, IV.):

$$\begin{array}{l} 1. \\ 3. \\ 4. \\ \end{array} \} \begin{array}{l} ->|-\smile|-\smile|\cong \wedge \\ ->|-\smile| \sqsubseteq ||-\smile|-\smile|\cong \wedge \\ \end{array}$$

In twelve Odes: I., 3, 13, 19, 36; III., 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; IV., 1, 3.

VII. LESSER ASCLEPIADEAN STANZA.—Four Lesser Asclepiadeans:

In three Odes: I., 1; III., 30; IV., 8.

VIII. GREATER ASCLEPIADEAN STANZA.—Four Greater Asclepiadeans (628, V.):

In three Odes: I., 11, 18; IV., 10.

IX. DOUBLE ALCMANIAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Dactylic Hexameters (610); second and fourth, Dactylic Tetrameters (616):

$$\begin{cases}
1. \\
3.
\end{cases} - \infty |-\infty| - \infty| - \infty| - \infty| - \omega| - \Sigma$$

$$\begin{cases}
2. \\
4.
\end{cases} - \infty |-\infty| - \omega| - \Sigma$$

In two Odes: I., 7, 28.

Note.—This stanza is formed by the union of two Alemanian stanzas; see XIX. below.

X. TROCHAIC STANZA.—First and third lines, Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic (619); second and fourth, Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (623):

In Ode II., 18.

XI. DACTYLIC ARCHILOCHIAN STANZA.—First and third lines, Dactylic Hexameters; second and fourth, Catalectic Dactylic Trimeters (617, note):

$$\begin{array}{l} 1. \\ 3. \\ 4. \\ \end{array} \} - \infty |-\infty| - \infty| - \infty| - \infty| - 00| - 2$$

In Ode IV., 7.

XII. Greater Archilochian Stanza.—First and third lines, Greater Archilochians (628, X.); second and fourth, Iambic Trimeter Catalectic (623):

In Ode I., 4.

Note.—The second and fourth lines are sometimes read with syncope, as follows:

XIII. Ionic Stanza.—First and second lines, Ionic Dimeters (626); third and fourth, Ionic Trimeters (626):

In Ode III., 12.

Note.—This ode is variously arranged in different editions, sometimes in stanzas of three lines and sometimes of four.

Stanzas of Three Lines.

XIV. First Archilochian Stanza.—First line, Hexameter; second, Iambic Dimeter; third, Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic:

In Epode 13.

Note.-In some editions, the second and third lines are united.

XV. SECOND ARCHILOCHIAN STANZA.—First line, Iambic Trimeter; second, Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic; third, Iambic Dimeter:

In Epode 11.

Note.-In some editions, the second and third lines are united.

Stanzas of Two Lines.

XVI. IAMBIC STANZA.—First line, Iambic Trimeter; second, Iambic Dimeter:

In the first ten Epodes.

XVII. First Pythiambic Stanza.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Dimeter (624):

1.
$$-\infty|-\infty|-\infty|-\infty|-00|-2$$
2. $2-0-|2-02|$

In Epodes 14 and 15.

XVIII. SECOND PYTHIAMBIC STANZA.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Iambic Trimeter:

1.
$$-\infty$$
 | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$ | $-\infty$

In Epode 16.

XIX. Alcmanian Stanza.—First line, Dactylic Hexameter; second, Dactylic Tetrameter:

1.
$$-\infty$$
 $|-\infty|$ $|-\infty|$ $|-\infty|$ $|-\infty|$ $|-2$
2. $|-\infty|$ $|-\infty|$ $|-\infty|$

In Epode 12.

Not grouped into Stanzas.

XX. IAMBIC TRIMETER:

In Epode 17.

632. INDEX TO THE LYRIC METRES OF HORACE.

The Roman numerals refer to articles in the preceding outline, 631.

Book I.	ODES.	METRES.	ODES.	METRES.
ODES. METRES			26	I.
1 VII			27	II.
2 II			28	VI.
3 VI			29	I.
4 XII			30	VII.
5 V		. I.		
6 IV			Book IV	
7 IX			1	VI.
8 III			2	II.
9			3	VI.
10 II			4	I.
11 VIII			5	IV.
12 II			6	II.
13 VI			7	XI.
14 V		. X.	8	VII.
15 IV			9	I.
16	. 20	. I.	10	VIII.
17			11	II.
18 VIII		II.	12	IV.
19 VI	1	. I.	13	v.
20 II	. 2	. I.	14	I.
21 V	. 3	. I.	15	I.
22 II	4	. I.		
23 V	. 5	. I.	EPODES.	
24 IV	6	. I.	EPODES.	METRES.
25 Il	7	. V.	1	XVI.
26	. 8	. II.	2	XVI.
27	[. 9	. VI.	3	XVI.
28 IX	. 10	. IV.	4	XVI.
29	. 11	. II.	5	XVI.
30 II	. 12	. XIII.	6	XVI.
31	. 13	. v.	7	XVI.
32 II	. 14	. II.	8	XVI.
33 IV	. 15	. VI.	9	XVI.
34	. 16	. IV.	10	XVI.
35	. 17	. I.	11	XV.
36 VI	. 18	. II.	12	XIX.
	. 19	. VI.	13	XIV.
38 II		**	14	XVII.
	21	_	15	XVII.
Book II.	22	. II.	16	XVIII.
1 1		. I.	17	XX.
2 II		***		
	. 25	. VI.	SECULAR HYMN,	II.

633. The metres of the following poets must be briefly mentioned:

I. CATULLUS uses chiefly (1) the Elegiac Distich (615); (2) Phalaecian

verse (629, I.); (3) Choliambus or Scazon (622, 4); (4) Iambic Trimeter (622); (5) Priapean (629, II.).

II. MARTIAL uses largely the Choliambus or Scazon and the Phalaecian verse.

Note 1.—Martial also uses Iambic and Dactylic measures.

NOTE 2.—Seneca in his choral odes imitates the lyric metres of Horace. He uses Sapphics very freely, and often combines them into systems closing with the Adonic.

Note 3.—Seneca also uses Anapaestic 1 verse with Spondees and Dactyls as equivalents. This consists of one or more dipodies:

Venient annis | saecula seris.

III. Plautus and Terence use chiefly various Iambic and Trochaic metres, but they also use—

1. Bacchiac 1 Metres, generally Tetrameter or Dimeter:

Multās' rēs | simī'tū in | meō' cor- | de vor'sō. Plaut. At ta'men ubī | fidēs' ? sī | rogēs', nīl | pendent' hīc. Ter.

Note.—The Molossus, — — —, may take the place of the Bacchīus, as in multūs rēs, and the long syllables may be resolved, as in at tamen ubž.

2. CRETIC 1 METRES, generally Tetrameter or Dimeter:

Nam' dolī | non' dolī | sunt', nisi as- | tū' colās. *Plaut*. Ut' malīs | gau'deant | at'que ex in- | com'modīs. *Ter*.

Note 1.—Plautus also uses Anapaestic metres, especially Dimeters:

Quod ago' subit, ad- | secuē' sequitur. Plaut.

This measure admits Dactyls and Spondees, rarely Proceleusmatics,

Note 2.—For Trochaic and Iambic Metres in Comedy, see 620, note 2; 622, 3.

Note 3.—For Special Peculiarities in the prosody of Plautus and Terence, see 576, notes 2 and 3: 578, note 2; 580, notes 2, 3, and 4.2

Note 4.—On the free use of Synaeresis in Comedy, see 608, III., note 3.

¹ See 603, note 1; 597, note 1.

² For a full account of the metres of Plautus and Terence, see editions of those poets; as the edition of Plautus by Ritschl, of a part of Plautus by Harrington, the edition of Terence by Wagner, and the edition by Crowell; also Spengel, 'Plautus: Kritik, Prosodie, Metrik.'

APPENDIX.

I. FIGURES OF SPEECH.

634. A Figure is a deviation from the ordinary form, construction, or signification of words.

Note.—Deviations from the ordinary forms are called Figures of Etymology; from the ordinary constructions, Figures of Syntax; and from the ordinary significations, Figures of Rhetoric.

- 635. The principal Figures of Etymology are-
- 1. APHAERESIS, the taking of one or more letters from the beginning of a word: 'st for est.
- 2. SYNCOPE, the taking of one or more letters from the middle of a word: dixe for dixisse,
 - 3. Apocope, the taking of one or more letters from the end of a word: tūn' for tūne.
- 4. EPENTHESIS, the insertion of one or more letters in a word: Alcumena for Alc mēna, ālituum for ālitum.
 - 5. METATHESIS, the transposition of letters: pistris for pristis.
 - 6. See also Figures of Prosody, 608.
 - 636. The principal Figures of Syntax are-
 - I. Ellipsis, the omission of one or more words of a sentence:

Habitābat ad Jovis (sc. templum), he dwelt near the temple of Jupiter. Liv. Hic illĭus arma (fuērunt), hic currus fuit, here were her arms, here her chariot. Verg.

- 1. Asynderon is an ellipsis of a conjunction: 1
- Vēnī, vīdī, vīcī, I came, I saw, I conquered. Suet. See also 554, I., 6, with note 1.
- 2. For the Ellipsis of faciō, dīcō, ōrō, see 368, 3, note 1; 523, I., note; 569, II., 3.
- 8. For Aposiopesis or Reticentia, see 637, XI., 3.
- II. Brachylogy, a concise and abridged form of expression:

Nostrī Graecē nesciunt nec Graecī Latīnē, 2 our people do not know Greek and the Greeks (do) not (know) Latin. Cic. Nātūra hominis bēluīs antecēdit, 2 the nature of man surpasses (that of) the brutes. Cic.

1. Zeugma employs a word in two or more connections, though strictly applicable only in one:

Pācem an bellum gerēns, whether at peace or waging war. Sall. Ducēs pīctāsque exūre carīnās, slay the leaders and burn the painted ships. Verg.

Asyndeton is sometimes distinguished according to its use, as Adversative, Explicative, Enumerative, etc.; see N\u00e4gelsbach, 'Stilistik,' \u00a7 200.

² Here nesciunt suggests sciunt, and bēluīs in the second example is equivalent to bēluūrum nātūrae.

³ Gerens, applicable only to bellum, is here used also of pacem.

2. Syllepsis is the use of an adjective with two or more nouns, or of a verb with two or more subjects:

Pater et mater mortul sunt, father and mother are dead (439). Ter. Tu et Tullia valetis, you and Tullia are well. Cic.

III. PLEONASM is a full, redundant, or emphatic form of expression:1

Erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus exire põssent, there were two ways by which ways they might depart. Caes. Eurusque Notusque ruunt, both Eurus and Notus rush forth. Verg.

- 1. POLYSYNDETON is a pleonasm in the use of conjunctions, as in the last example.
- 2. Hendladys is the use of two nouns with a conjunction, instead of a noun with an adjective or genitive:

Armis virisque for viris armātīs, with armed men. Tac.

- 3. Anaphora is the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clauses:
- Mē cūncta Italia, mē ūniversa cīvitās consulem dēclārāvit, me all Italy, me the vehole state declared consul. Cic.
 - 4. EPIPHORA is the repetition of a word at the end of successive clauses:

Laelius nāvus erat, doctus erat, Laelius was diligent, was learned. Cic.

5. EPIZEUXIS is the emphatic repetition of a word:

- Fuit, fuit quondam in hao re publica virtus, there was, there was formerly virtue in this republic. Cic.
- 6. Monosyllabic prepositions are often repeated before successive nouns, regularly so with et—et:

Et in bellicis et in civilibus officiis, both in military and in civil offices. Cic.

Note.—Other prepositions are sometimes repeated.

- 7. A demonstrative pronoun or adverb—id, hŏc, illud, sīc, ita—is often used somewhat redundantly to represent a subsequent clause. So also quid, in quid cēnsēs with a clause:
 - Illud të örö ut diligëns sis, I ask you (that thing) to be (that you be) diligent. Cic.
 - 8. Pronouns are often redundant with quidem; see 450, 4, note 2.
 - 9. Pleonasm often occurs with licet:
 - Ut liceat permittitur = licet, it is lawful (is permitted that it is, etc.). Cic.
 - 10. Circumlocutions with rēs, genus, modus, and ratio are common.
- IV. ENALLAGE is the substitution of one part of speech for another, or of one grammatical form for another:

Populus lātē rēx (for rēgnāns), a people of extensive sway (ruling extensively). Verg. Sērus (sērō) in caelum redeās, may you return late to heaven. Hor. Vīna cadīs (vīnīs cadōs) onerāre, to fill the flasks with wine. Verg. Cursus jūstī (jūstus) amnis, the regular course of the river. Liv.

- 1. Antimeria is the use of one part of speech for another, as in the first two examples.
- 2. HYPALLAGE is the use of one case for another, as in the last two examples.
- 8. PROLEPSIS OF ANTICIPATION is the application of an epithet in anticipation of the action of the verb:

Scuta latentia condunt, they conceal their hidden shields. Verg. See also 440, 2.

4. Synesis is a construction according to sense, without regard to grammatical forms. For examples, see 438, 6; 445, 5; 461.

¹ Pleonasm, a full or emphatic expression, differs widely from Tautology, which is a needless repetition of the same meaning in different words.

5. Attraction unites in construction words not united in sense:

Animal quem (for quod) vocāmus hominem, the animal which we call man. Cic. See also 445, 4, 8, and 9.

- 6. Anacoluthon is a want of harmony in the construction of the different parts of a sentence;
 - Sī, ut dīcunt, omnēs Grāios esse (Grāiī sunt), if, as they say, all are Greeks. Cic.
 - V. Hyperbaton is a transposition of words or clauses:

Practer arma nihil erat super (supererat), nothing remained, except their arms. Nep. Valet atque vīvit (vīvit atque valet), he is alive and well. Ter. Subcunt lūcō, fluviumque relinquunt, they enter the grove and leave the river. Verg.

- 1. Anastrophe is the transposition of words only, as in the first example.
- 2. Hysteron Proteron is a transposition of clauses, as in the last example.
- 3. Thesis is the separation of the parts of a compound word:
- Nec prius respēxī quam vēnimus, $nor\ did\ I\ look\ back\ before$ (sooner than) $we\ arrived.$ Verg.
 - 4. Chiasmus is an inverted arrangement of words in contrasted groups; see 562.
- $637.\ \mbox{Figures of Rhetoric comprise several varieties.}$ The following are the most important: 1
 - I. A SIMILE is a direct comparison:

Manus effügit imägő pär levibus ventīs voluerīque simillima somnō, the image, like the swift winds, and very like a fleeting dream, escaped my hands. Verg.

II. METAPHOR is an implied comparison, and assigns to one object the appropriate name, epithet, or action of another:

Rěī půblicae vulnus (for damnum), the wound of the republic. Cic. Naufragium fortūnae, the wreck of fortune. Cic. Aurès vēritātī clausae sunt, his ears are closed against the truth. Cic.

- 1. Allegory is an extended metaphor, or a series of metaphors. For an example, see Horace, I., Ode 14: Ō nāvis . . . occupā portum, etc.²
- III. METONYMY is the use of one name for another naturally suggested by it:

Aequo Marte (for proelio) pūgnātum est, they fought in an equal contest. Liv. Furit Vulcānus (ignis), the fire rages. Verg. Proximus ardet Ūcalegon (domus Ūcalegontis), Ucalegon burns next. Verg.

Note.—By this figure the cause is often put for the effect, and the effect for the cause; the property for the possessor, the place or age for the people, the sign for the thing signified, the material for the manufactured article, etc.: Mārs for bellum, Vulcānus for ignis, Bacchus for vīnum, nobilitās for nobilēs, Graecia for Graecī, laurea for vīctoria, argentum for vāsa argentea, etc.

¹ On Figurative Language, see the eighth and ninth books of Quintilian, 'De Institutione Öratöria,' and the fourth book of 'Auctor ad Herennium' in Cicero's works.

² In this beautiful allegory the poet represents the vessel of state as having been well-nigh wrecked in the storms of the civil war, but as now approaching the haven of peace.

1. Autonomasia designates a person by some title or office, as eversor Karthāqinis for Scīpiō, Romānae eloquentiae prīnceps for Cicerō.

IV. SYNECDOCHE is the use of a part for the whole, or of the whole for a part; of the special for the general, or of the general for the special:

Statio male fida carinis (nāvibus), a station unsafe for ships. Verg.

V. Irony is the use of a word for its opposite:

Legatos bonus (for malus) imperator vester non admisit, your good commander did not admit the ambassadors. Liv. See also 507, 3, note 1.

NOTE .- Metaphor, metonymy, synecdoche, and irony are often called Tropes.

VI. CLIMAX (ladder) is a steady ascent or advance in interest:

Africano industria virtutem, virtus gloriam, gloria aemulas comparavit, industry procured virtue for Africanus, virtue glory, glory rivals. Cic.

VII. HYPERBOLE is an exaggeration:

Ventis et fulminis ocior alis, swifter than the winds and the wings of the lightning. Verg.

VIII. LITOTES denies something instead of affirming the opposite:

Non opus est = perniciosum est, it is not necessary. Cic.

IX. Personification or Prosopopeia represents inanimate objects as living beings:

Cujus latus ille mucro petebat? whose side did that weapon seek? Cic.1

X. Apostrophe is an address to inanimate objects or to absent persons: Vōs, Albānī tumulī, vōs implorō, *I implore you*, *ye Albān hills*. Cic.

XI. The following figures deserve brief mention:

1. Alliteration, a repetition of the same letter at the beginning of successive words:

Vi victa vis est, force was conquered by force. Cic. Fortissimi viri virtus, the virtue of a most brave man. Cic.

2. Apophasis or Paraleipsis, a pretended omission: 2

Non dīco tē pecūniās accēpisse; rapīnās tuās omnēs omitto, I do not state that you accepted money; I omit all your acts of rapine. Cic.

3. Aposiopesis or Reticentia, an ellipsis which for rhetorical effect leaves the sentence unfinished:

Quös ego—sed mötös praestat compönere flüctüs, whom I—but it is better to calm the troubled waves. Verg.

4. Euphemism, the use of mild or agreeable language on unpleasant subjects:

SI quid mihi humanitus accidisset, if anything common to the lot of man should befall me—i. e., if I should die. Cic.

² Sometimes called occupātiŏ.

¹ See also First Oration against Catiline, VII.: Quae tēcum . . . tacita loquitur, etc.

5. Onomatopoeia, the use of a word in imitation of a special sound:

Bovës mugiunt, the cattle low. Liv. Murmurat unda, the wave murmurs. Verg.

6. Oxymoron, an apparent contradiction:

Absentes adsunt et egentes abundant, the absent are present and the needy have an abundance. Cic.

7. PARONOMASIA or AGNOMINATION, a play upon words:

Hune avium duleedd dueit ad avium, the attraction of birds leads him to the pathless wood. Cic.

II. LATIN LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE.

638. The Latin derives its name from the Latini or Latins, the ancient inhabitants of Latium in Italy. It belongs to the Indo-European or Aryan family, which embraces seven groups of tongues known as the Indian or Sanskrit, the Persian or Zend, the Greek, the Italian, the Celtic, the Slavonic, and the Teutonic or Germanic. The Latin is the leading member of the Italian group, which also embraces the Umbrian and the Oscan. All these languages have one common system of inflection, and in various respects strikingly resemble each other. They are the descendants of one common speech spoken by a single race of men untold centuries before the dawn of history.

NOTE 1.—In illustration of the relationship between the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English, compare the following paradigms of declension: ²

	SINGUL	AR.	
SANSKRIT. Stem. pad,	Greek. $\pi o \delta$,	LATIN. ped,	English. foot.
Nom., pād,	πούς,	pēs,	foot.
Gen. padas, Dat. pade, Acc. pādam, Abl. padas, Ins. padā, Loc. padi,	ποδός, ποδί, πόδα, ³	pedis, pedī, pedem, pede,4	of a foot. to a foot. foot. from a foot. with a foot. in a foot.
	PLURA	AL.	
Nom., pādas,	πόδες,	pedēs,	feet.
Gen. padām, Dat. padbhyas, Acc. padas, Abl. padbhyas, Ins. padbhis, Loc. patsu,	ποδῶν, ποσί, πόδας,	pedum, pedibus, pedēs, pedibus,	of feet. to feet. feet. from feet. with feet. in feet.

¹ The pun, lost in English, is in the use of āvium, a remote or pathless place, with avium, of birds.

² See also p. 71, foot-note 2; p. 83, foot-note 8.

³ The Ablative, the Instrumental, and the Locative are lost in Greek, but their places are supplied by the Genitive and the Dative.

⁴ The final consonant, probably t, of the original Ablative ending is changed to s in padas and dropped in pede. The Instrumental and the Locative are lost in Latin, but their places are supplied by the Ablative,

NOTE 2.—In these paradigms observe that the initial p in pad, $\pi o \delta$, ped, becomes f in foot, and that the final d becomes t. This change is in accordance with Grimm's Law of the Rotation of Mutes in the Germanic languages. This law is as follows:

The Primitive Mutes, which generally remain unchanged in Sanskrit, Greek, and Latin, are changed in passing into the Germanic languages, to which the English belongs. Thus the Sonants, d, g, in passing into English, become Surds, t, k; the Surds, c, k, p, t, become Aspirates, h, wh, f (for ph), th; the Aspirates, bh, 1 dh, 1 gh, 1 become Sonants, b, d, g, 2

Note 3.—The relationship between the Sanskrit, Greek, Latin, and English may be abundantly illustrated by comparing the forms of familiar words in these different languages.

639. The earliest specimens of Latin whose date can be determined are found in ancient inscriptions, and belong to the latter part of the fourth century before Christ or to the beginning of the third. Fragments, however, of laws, hymns, and sacred formulas, doubtless of an earlier though uncertain date, have been preserved in Cato, Livy, Cicero, and other Latin writers.

3 Compare the following:

SANSKRIT.	GREEK.	LATIN.	ENGLISH.
dvau,	δύο,	duo,	two.
trayas,	τρεῖς,	trēs,	three.
şat,	έξ,	sex,	six.
sapta,	έπτά,	septem,	seven.
daça,	δέκα,	decem,	ten.
dvis,	δίς,	bis,	twice.
tris,	τρίς,	ter,	thrice.
mātā, -	μήτηρ,	mäter,	mother.
pitā,	πατήρ,	pater,	father.
naus,	vaûs,	nāvis,	navy.
vāk,	ŏψ,	vōx,	voice.

4 Such are the ancient forms of prayer found in Cato and other writers, the fragments of Salian hymns, of the formulas of the Fetial priests, and of ancient laws, especially of the laws of the Twelve Tables. The following inscription on the tomb of the Scipios shows some of the peculiarities of early Latin:

HONC OINO . PLOIRVME . CONSENTIONT . R
DVONORO . OPTYMO . FYISE . VIRO
LVCIOM . SCIPIONE . FILIOS . BAEBATI
CONSOL . CENSOR . AIDILIS . HIC . FYET . A
HEC . CEPIT . CORSICA . ALERIAQVE . VRBE
DEDET . TEMPESTATEBUS . AIDE . MERETO

In ordinary Latin:

Hunc unum plurimi consentiunt Romāt bonorum optimum fuisse virum virorum, Lucium Scipionem. Filius Barbāti consul, consul, cadīlis hic fuit apud vos. Hic copit Corsicam Aleriamque urbem pūgnando; dedit tempestātībus aedem merito votam.

See Wordsworth, 'Early Latin,' Part II.; F. D. Allen, 'Early Latin'; Roby, I., p. 418.

¹ Bh generally is represented in Latin by b or f; dh by d or f, and gh by g, h, or f; see Schleicher, pp. 244–251.

² For an account of Grimm's Law, with its applications, see Max Müller, 'Science of Language,' Second Series, Lecture V.; Papillon, pp. 85-91.

- 640. The history of Roman literature begins with Livius Andronicus, a writer of plays, and the earliest Roman author known to us. It embraces about eight centuries, from 250 B. C. to 550 A. D., and has been divided by Dr. Freund into three principal periods. These periods, with their principal authors, are as follows:
 - I. The Ante-Classical Period, from 250 to 81 B. c.:

Ennius, Plautus, Terence, Lucretius.

- II. The CLASSICAL PERIOD, embracing-
- 1. The Golden Age, from 81 B. C. to 14 A. D.:

Cicero, Nepos, Horace, Tibullus, Caesar, Livy, Ovid, Propertius. Sallust, Vergil, Catullus,

2. The Silver Age, from 14 to 180 A. D.:

Phaedrus, The Plinies, Quintilian, Persius, Vellēius, Tacitus, Suetonius, Lucan, The Senecas, Curtius, Juvenal, Martial.

- III. The Post-Classical Period, embracing-
- 1. The Brazen Age, from 180 to 476 A. D.:

Justin, Eutropius, Lactantius, Claudian, Victor, Macrobius, Ausonius, Terentian.

2. The Iron Age, from 476 to 550 A. D.:

Boëthius, Cassiodorus, Justinian, Priscian.

III. THE ROMAN CALENDAR.

- 641. The Julian Calendar of the Romans is the basis of our own, and is identical with it in the number of months in the year and in the number of days in the months.
- 642. Peculiarities.—The Roman calendar has the following peculiarities:
- I. The days were not numbered from the beginning of the month, as with us, but from three different points in the month:
 - 1. The Calends, the first of each month.
- 2. The Nones, the fifth—but the seventh in March, May, July, and October.
- 3. The Ides, the thirteenth—but the fifteenth in March, May, July, and October.
- II. From these three points the days were numbered, not forward, but backward.

Note.—Hence, after the *Ides* of each month, the days were numbered from the Calends of the following month.

III. In numbering backward from each of these points, the day before

cach was denoted by prīdiz Kalendās, Nonās, etc.; the second before each by diz tertio (not secundo) ante Kalendās, etc.; the third, by diz quarto, etc.; and so on through the month.

- 1. This peculiarity in the use of the numerals, designating the second day before the Calends, etc., as the third, and the third as the fourth, etc., arises from the fact that the Calends, etc., were themselves counted as the first. Thus pridic Kalendas becomes the second before the Calends, die tertio ante Kalendas, the third, etc.
- 2. In dates the name of the month is added in the form of an adjective in agreement with Kalendas, Nonas, etc., as, die quarto ante Nonas Januarias, often shortened to quarto ante Nonas Jan., or IV. ante Nonas Jan., or without ante, as, IV. Nonas Jan, the second of January.
- 3. Ante diem is common, instead of die—ante, as, ante diem quartum Nonds Jan. for die quarto ante Nonds Jan.
- 4. The expressions ante diem Kal., etc., pridië Kal., etc., are often used as indeclinable nouns with a preposition, as, ex ante diem V. Îdüs Oct., from the 11th of Oct. Liv. Ad pridië Nonas Māiās, till the 6th of May. Cic.

643. CALENDAR FOR THE YEAR.

Days of the Month.	March, May, July, October.	January, August, December.	April, June, September, November.	February.
1	Kalendīs.1	KALENDĪS.	KALENDĪS.	Kalendīs.
2	VI. Nonas.1	IV. Nonas.	IV. Nonas.	IV. Nonās.
8	V. "	III. "	III. "	III.
4	IV. "	Prīdie Nonas.	Prīdie Nonas.	Pridie Nonas.
5	III. "	Nonis.	Nonis.	Nonis.
6	Prīdiē Nonās.	VIII. Īdūs.	VIII. Īdūs.	VIII. Īdūs.
7	Nonis.	VII. "	VII.	VII.
8	VIII. Īdūs.	VI. "	VI. "	VI. "
2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	VII.	V. "	v. "	V. "
10	VI. "	IV. "	IV. "	iv. "
11	V. "	III. "	III. "	ĪII. "
12	IV. "	Prīdie Idūs.	Prīdie Īdūs.	Pridie Idus.
18	III. "	TDIBUS.	ĪDIBUS.	TDIBUS.
14	Prīdiē Īdūs.	XIX, Kalend,2	XVIII, Kalend.2	XVI. Kalend.2
15	ĪDIBUS.	XVIII. "	XVII. "	XV. "
16	XVII. Kalend.2	XVII. "	XVI. "	XIV. "
17	XVI. "	XVI. "	XV. "	XIII. "
18	XV. "	XV. "	XIV. "	XII. "
-19	XIV. "	XIV. "	XIII. "	XI. "
20	XIII. "	XIII. "	XII. "	X. "
21	XII. "	XII. "	XI. "	IX. "
22	XI. "	XI. "	X. "	VIII. "
23	X. "	X. "	IX. "	VII. "
24	IX. "	IX. "	VIII. "	VI. "
25	VIII.	VIII. "	VII. "	V. (VI.) 3 "
26	VII. "	VII. "	VI. "	IV. (V.) "
27	VI.	VI. "	V. "	III. (IV.) "
28	V. "	V. "	IV. "	Prid. Kal.(III.Kal
29	IV. "	IV. "	III. "	(Prīd. Kal
30	III. "	III. "	Prīdiē Kalend.	· ·
81	Prīdiē Kalend.	Prīdie Kalend.		

¹ To the Calends, Nones, etc., the name of the month must of course be added. Before Nōnās, Īdūs, etc., ante is sometimes used and sometimes omitted (642, III., 2).

² The Calends of the following month are of course meant; the 16th of March, for instance, is XVII. Kalendas Aprīlēs.

³ The inclosed forms apply to leap-year.

- 644. English and Latin Dates.—The table (643) will furnish the learner with the English expression for any Latin date, or the Latin expression for any English date; but it may be convenient also to have the following rule:
- I. If the day is numbered from the Nones or Ides, subtract the number diminished by one from the number of the day on which the Nones or Ides fall:

VIII. ante Īdūs Jān. = 13 - (8 - 1) = 13 - 7 = 6th of January.

II. If the day is numbered from the Calends of the following month, subtract the number diminished by two from the number of days in the current month:

XVIII. ante Kal. Feb. = 31 - (18 - 2) = 31 - 16 = 15th of January.

Note.—In leap-year the 24th and the 25th February are both called the sixth before the Calends of March, VI. Kal. Mart. The days before the 24th are numbered as if the month contained only 28 days, but the days after the 25th are numbered regularly for a month of 29 days: V., IV., III. Kal. Mart., and pridic Kal. Mart.

- 645. The Roman day, from sunrise to sunset, and the night, from sunset to sunrise, were each divided at all seasons of the year into twelve hours.
- 1. The night was also divided into four watches of three Roman hours each.
- 2. The hour, being uniformly $^{1}/_{12}$ of the day or of the night, of course varied in length with the length of the day or night at different seasons of the year.

IV. ROMAN MONEY, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

646. The principal Roman coins were the ās, of copper; the sestertius, quīnārius, dēnārius, of silver; and the aureus, of gold. Their value in the classical period may be approximately given as follows:

Ās Sestertius		to :	2 cents.
Quinārius			44
Dēnārius	20		66
Aureus = 25 dēnāriī	\$5.00		

1. The $\bar{a}s$, the unit of the Roman currency, contained originally a pound of copper, but it was diminished from time to time till at last it contained only $\frac{1}{24}$ of a pound.

Note.—An ās, whatever its weight, was divided into twelve unciae.

- 2. The sestertius contained originally 2½ āssēs, the quīnārius 5, and the dēnārius 10; but as the ās depreciated in value, the number of āssēs in these coins was increased.
 - 3. The ās is also used as a general unit of measure. Thus-
 - 1) In Weight, the ās is a pound, and the uncia an ounce.
- 2) In Measure, the ās is a foot or a jūgerum (648, IV. and V.), and the uncia is 1/12 of a foot or of a jūgerum.
 - 3) In Interest, the as is the unit of interest-i. e., 1 per cent. a month,

or 12 per cent. a year; the *uncia* is $^{1}/_{12}$ per cent. a month, or 1 per cent. a year; and the sēmis is $^{6}/_{12}$ per cent. a month, or 6 per cent. a year, etc.

4) In Inheritance, the ās is the whole estate, and the uncia 1/12 of it: heres ex āsse, heir of the whole estate; here's ex dodrante, heir of 9/12.

- 647. Computation of Money.—In all sums of money the common unit of computation was the *sestertius*, also called *nūmmus*; but four special points deserve notice:
- I. In all sums of money, the units, tens, and hundreds are denoted by sestertii with the proper cardinals:

Quinque sestertii, 5 sesterces; viginti sestertii, 20 sesterces; ducenti sestertii, 200 sesterces.

- II. One thousand sesterces are denoted by mille sestertii, or mille sester-
- III. In sums less than 1,000,000 sesterces, the thousands are denoted either (1) by milia sestertium (gen. plur.), or (2) by sestertia:

Duo milia sestertium, or duo sestertia, 2,000 sesterces; quinque milia sestertium, or quinque sestertia, 5,000 sesterces.

Note.—With sestertia the distributives are generally used, as, bina sestertia.

IV. In sums containing one or more millions of sesterces, sestertium with the value of 100,000 sesterces is used with the proper numeral adverb, decies, vīcies, etc. Thus—

Deciës sestertium, 1,000,000 (10 × 100,000) sesterces; vīciës sestertium, 2,000,000 (20 × 100,000) sesterces.

- 1. Sestertium.—In the examples under IV., sestertium is treated as a neuter noun in the singular, though originally it was probably the genitive plural of sestertius, and the full expression for 1,000,000 sesterces was Dectes centena milia sestertium. Centena milia was afterward generally omitted, and finally sestertium lost its force as a genitive plural, and became a neuter noun in the singular, capable of declension.
- Sometimes sestertium is omitted, leaving only the numeral adverb: as, decies, 1,000,000 sesterces.
- 3. The sign HS is often used for sestertii, and sometimes for sestertia, or sestertium:

 Decem HS = 10 sesterces (HS = sestertii). Dena HS = 10,000 sesterces (HS = sesterces).
- tertia). Decles HS = 1,000,000 sesterces (HS = sestertium).

 648. Weights and Measures.—The following weights and measures deserve mention:
- I. The Libra, also called \overline{As} or $Pond\delta$, equal to about $11\frac{1}{2}$ ounces avoirdupois, is the basis of Roman weights,
 - 1. The Libra, like the as in money, is divided into 12 parts.
 - II. The Modius, equal to about a peck, is the basis of dry measure.
- III. The Amphora, containing a Roman cubic foot, equivalent to about seven gallons, is a convenient basis of liquid measure.
- IV. The Roman Pes or Foot, equivalent to about 11.6 inches, is the basis of long measure.

Note.—Cubitus is equivalent to 1% Roman feet, passus to 5, and stadium to 625.

V. The Jagerum, containing 28,800 Roman square feet, equivalent to about six tenths of an acre, is the basis of square measure.

V. ROMAN NAMES.

- 649. A Roman citizen usually had three names. The first, or pracnomen, designated the individual; the second, or nomen, the gens or tribe; and the third, or cognomen, the family. Thus, Publius Cornelius Scipio was Pūblius of the Scīpio family of the Cornelian gens, and Gāius Jūlius Caesar was Gāius of the Caesar family of the Julian gens.
 - The praenomen was often abbreviated:

 $A_{\cdot} = Aulus.$ $M_{\cdot} = M\bar{a}reus.$ S. (Sex.) = Sextus.Ap. = Appius.M'. = Mānius. Ser. = Servius.Mam. = Māmercus. Sp. = Spurius. C. = Gāius. N. = Numerius. Cn. = Gnaeus. T. = Titus.D. = Decimus. P. = Püblius. Ti. (Tib.) = Tiberius. L. = Lūcius. Q. (Qu.) = Quintus.

- 2. Sometimes an agnomen or surname was added. Thus Scipio received the surname Africānus from his victories in Africa: Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō Africanus.
- 3. An adopted son took (1) the full name of his adoptive father, and (2) an agnomen in anus formed from the name of his own gens. Thus Octavius when adopted by Caesar became Gāius Jūlius Caesar Octāviānus. Afterward the title of Augustus was conferred upon him, making his full name Gāius Jūlius Caesar Octāviānus Augustus.
- 4. Women were generally known by the name of their gens. Thus the daughter of Jūlius Caesar was simply Jūlia; of Tullius Cicero, Tullia; of Cornelius Scīpio, Cornelia. Three daughters in any family of the Cornelian gens would be known as Cornelia, Cornelia Secunda or Minor, and Cornelia Tertia.

F. C. = faciendum cu-

650. Various abbreviations occur in classical authors: rāvit.

A. $D_{\cdot} =$ ante diem. Aed. = aedīlis. A. U. C. = anno urbis conditae. Cos. = consul. Coss. = consules. $D_{\cdot} = divus$. D. D. = dono dedit. Des. = dēsīgnātus. D. M. = diīs mānibus. D. S. = dē suō. D. S. P. P. = dē suā pecunia posuit. Eq. Rom. = eques Romānus. F. = filius.

 $Id. = \bar{I}d\bar{u}s.$ Imp. = imperator. K. (Kal.) = Kalendae.Leg. = legātus.Non. = Nonae. O. M. = optimus māx-P. C. = patres conscriptī. māximus.

Pont. Max. = pontifex P. R. = populusRōmānus.

Pr. = praetor.

Praef. = praefectus. Proc. = prōconsul.

Q. B. F. F. Q. S. = quodbonum, fēlīx, faustumque sit.

Quir. = Quirītēs. Resp. = res pública.

S. = senātus. S. C. = senātūs consul-

tum. S. D. P. = salūtem dīcit

plūrimam. S. P. Q. R. = senātus

populusque Romanus. Tr. Pl. = tribūnus plēbis.

- VI. VOWELS BEFORE TWO CONSONANTS OR A DOUBLE CONSONANT.
- 651. On the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants, a double consonant, or the letter j, observe—
- I. That vowels are long before **ns** and **nf**; generally also before **gn** and **j**:

conscius, consensus, constans, construo, consul, insanus, inscribo, insequor, instans, insula, amans, monens, regens, audiens; confero, conficio, confluo, infamia, infelix, infensus, infero, infrequens; abiegnus, benignus, magnus, malignus, regnum, signum, stagnum; cujus, ejus, hujus, major, pejor.

II. That all vowels which represent diphthongs, or are the result of contraction, are long:

exīstimē, amāsse, audīssem, intrērsum, intrērsus, prērsus, quērsum, rūrsum, sūrsum, mālle, māllem, nēlle, nēllem, nūllus, ūllus, Mārs, Mārtis.

- III. That the long vowels of Primitives are retained in Derivatives-
- 1. In āscō, ēscō, and īscō in Inceptives from verbs of the first, second, or fourth conjugation:

gelāscō, labāscō, acēscō, ārēscō, flōrēscō, latēscō, patēscō, silēscō, virēscō, ēdormīscō, obdormīscō, scīscō, cōnscīscō.

2. In large classes of words of which the following are examples:

crās-tinus, dūc-tilis, fās-tus, ne-fās-tus, flōs-culus, jūs-tus, in-jūs-tus, jūs-tissimus, jūs-titia, mātr-imōnium, ōs-culum, ōs-culor, ōs-tium, palūs-ter, rās-trum, rōs-trum, rūs-ticus, salīc-tum.

IV. That vowels are long in the ending of the Nominative Singular of nouns and adjectives with long increments in the Genitive:

frūx, lēx, lūx, pāx, plēbs, rēx, thorāx, vox.

V. That in the second person of the Perfect Active i is long in the penult:

amāvīstī, amāvīstis, monuīstī, monuīstis, rēxīstī, rēxīstis, audīvīstī, audīvīstī, audīvīstīs.

¹ It is often difficult, and sometimes absolutely impossible, to determine the natural quantity of vowels before two consonants, but the subject has of late been somewhat carefully investigated by Ritschl, Schmitz, and others. An attempt has been made in this article to collect the most important results of these labors. The chief sources of information upon this subject are (1) ancient inscriptions, (2) Greek transcriptions of Latin words, (3) the testimony of ancient grammarians, (4) the comic poets, and (5) etymology. See Schmitz, 'Beiträge'; Ritschl, 'Rheinisches Museum,' vol. xxxi., pp. 481—492; Schöll, 'Ācta Societātis Philologae Lipsiēnsis,' vol. vl., pp. 71—215; Müller, 'Orthographiae et Prosödiae Latīnae Summārium'; Foerster, 'Rheinisches Museum,' xxxiil., pp. 291—299.

² Introrsum from introversum; ūllus from ūnulus; Mārs from Mavors.

Note.—According to Priscian, 1 e is long before $x\bar{\imath}$, $x\bar{\imath}st\bar{\imath}$, etc., in the Perfect Active: $r\bar{\epsilon}x\bar{\imath}$, $r\bar{\epsilon}xit$, $t\bar{\epsilon}x\bar{\epsilon}runt$, $ill\bar{\epsilon}ximus$.

VI. That long vowels occur in the following words and in their derivatives:

āctiŏ	māximus	rēctus
āctitō	mīlle	Sāllustius
āctor	nārrō	sēscentī
āctus	Nōrba	Sēstius
āxilla	nūntius	strüctor
clāssis	$\bar{\mathrm{o}}\mathrm{rd}\check{\mathrm{o}}$.	strūctūra
crīspus	ōrnāmentum	strūctus
dāmma	ōrnō	tāxillus
ĕmptus	pāstor	tössillae
fēstus	pāxillus	trīstis
Fēstus	Polliŏ	ūnctiŏ
Jūppiter	Popīllius	ŭnctitō
lēctitō	priscus	ūnctor
lector	propinquus	ūnctūra
lēctus	prōximus	ūnctus
līctor	querēlla	Vēstīnus
līttera	quinque	vēstis
luēlla	quintus	vēxillum
Mārcus	rēctiŏ	vīlla
māxilla	rēctor	Vīpsānius

VII. That vowels are probably short before nt and nd:2

amant, amantis, monent, monentis, prūdentis, prūdentia, amandus, monendus, regendus.

VIII. That the short vowels of Primitives are retained in Derivatives: inter-nus, juyen-tus, liber-tās, mūnus-culum, patr-imōnium, pauper-culus, super-bus, vir-tūs.

IX. That vowels are generally short in the ending of the Nominative Singular of nouns and adjectives with short increments in the Genitive:

adeps, calix, dux, grex, hiems, jūdex, nex, nux.

Note.—Vowels before final ns are of course excepted.

X. That the first vowel in the following endings is short:

1. ernus, ernius, ernīnus; urnus, urnius, urnīnus:

māternus, paternus, Līternius, Līternīnus, taciturnus, Sāturnius, Sāturnīnus.

2. ustus, estus, ester, estis, esticus, estīnus, estris:

robustus, venustus, vetustus, honestus, modestus, campester, silvester, agrestis, caelestis, domesticus, elandestīnus, terrestris.

XI. That all vowels are to be treated as short unless there are good reasons for believing them to be long.

¹ See Book IX., 28.

² See p. 37, foot-note 2; p. 61, foot-note 2.

INDEX OF VERBS.

This Index contains an alphabetical list, not only of all the simple verbs in common use which involve any important irregularities, but also of such compounds as seem to require special mention. In regard to compounds of prepositions (344) observe—

- 1. That the elements—preposition and verb—often appear in the compound in a changed form; see 344, 4-6.
- 2. That the stem-vowel is often changed in the Perfect and Supine; see 221.

A

Ab-dō,1 ere, didī, ditum, 271. Ab-iciō; see $jaci\bar{o}$, 271, 2. Ab-igō; see $ag\bar{o}$, 271, 2. Aboleo, ere, evi, itum, p. 124, footnote 2. Abolesco, ere, olevī, olitum, 277. Ab-ripio; see rapio, 274. Abs-condo; see abdo, 271. Ab-sum, 290, I. Ac-cendo, ere, i, censum, 272, 3. Ac-cidō; see cadō, 272; 301. Ac-cino; see cano, 271. Ac-cipiō; see capiō, 271, 2. Ac-colo; see colo, 274. Ac-cumbo, ère, cubuī, cubitum, 273. Acēscō, ere, acuī, —, 281. Ac-quirō; see quaerō, 278. Acuo, ere, ui, utum, 279. Ad-do; see abdō, 271; 255, I., 4. Ad-fari, p. 142, foot-note 5. Ad-fero, 292, 2. Ad-imō; see emō, 271, 2. Ad-ipiscor, I, adeptus sum, 283, footnote 1. Ad-olēscō; see abolēscō, 277. Ad-orior; see orior, 288, 2. Ad-spicio; see aspicio, 217, 2. Ad-sto, 259, N. 2. Ad-sum, 290, I. Ag-gredior; see gradior, 283. Ā-gnōscō; see nōscō, 278. Agō, ere, egī, actum, 271, 2. Āiō, def., 297, II. Albeō, ere, —, 262, N. 2.

Algeo, ere, alsī, —, 265.

Al-licio, ere, lexi, lectum, 217, 2; p. 130, foot-note 8. Alo, ere, alui, alitum, altum, 273. Amb-igō; see agō, 271, 2. Amb-iō, 295, N. 2. Amiciō, īre, uī (xī), tum, 285. Amo, 205. Amplector, ī, amplēxus sum, 283. Angō, ere, anxī, —, 272, N. 1. An-nuō, ere, ī, —, 272, N. 1. Ante-capiō, p. 128, foot-note 14. Apage, def., 297, III. Aperio, Ire, ui, tum, 285. Apiscor, ī, aptus sum, 283. Ap-pareo; see pareo, 262; 301. Ap-peto; see peto, 278. Ap-plico; see plico, 258. Ap-pono; see pono, 273. Arcesso, ere, Ivi, Itum, 278. Ardeo, ere, arsī, arsum, 265. Ārēsco, ere, āruī, -, 281. Arguō, ere, uī, ūtum, 279. Ar-ripio; see rapio, 274. A-scendo; see scando, 272, 3. A-spergo; see spargo, 270. A-spicio, ere, spēxī, spēctum, 217, 2 As-sentior, īrī, sēnsus sum, 288, 2. As-sideo; see sedeo, 267, 2. At-texō; see texō, 274. At-tineō; see teneō, 263. At-tingo; see tango, 271. At-tollo; see tollo, 271. Audeō, ere, ausus sum, 268, 3. Audiō, 211. Au-ferō, 292, 2. Augeo, ere, auxi, auctum, 264. Ave, def.; see have, 297, III.

¹ Final ō in verbs is sometimes shortened, though rarely in the best writers.

В

Bālbūtiō, īre, —, 284, N. 2. Batuō, ere, ī, —, 272, N. 1. Bibō, ere, ī, —, 272, N. 1. Blandior, īrī, ītus sum, 288.

(

Cado, ere, cecidī, cāsum, 272. Caecutio, ire, -, 284, N. 2. Caedo, ere, cecidi, caesum, 272. Calesco, ere, caluī, —, 281. Calveō, ēre, —, 262, N. 2. Candeō, ēre, uī, 262, N. 1. Cando, p. 129, foot-note 14. Caneo, ere, -, 262, N. 2. Cano, ere, cecini, cantum, 271. Capesso, ere, ivi, itum, 278. Capio, ere, cepī, captum, 217; 218; 271, 2. Carpo, ere, sī, tum, 269. Caveo, ere cavi, cautum, 266. Cēdō, ere, cēssī, cēssum, 270. Cedo, def., 297, III. Cellō, obs.; see excellō, 273, N. Cēnō, 257, N. 2. Censeo, ere, ui, censum, 263. Cerno, ere, crevi, cretum, 277. Cieō, cre, civī, citum, 265, N. Cingo, ere, cinxi, cinctum, 269. Ciō, 265, N. Circum-ago, p. 128, foot-note 13. Circum-do, 255, I., 4; 259, N. 1. Circum-sisto; see sisto, 271. Circum-sto, 255, I., 4. Clango, ere, —, 272, N. 2. Claudo, ere, clausi, clausum, 270. Claudo, ere, — (to be lame), 272, N. 2. Co-arguō; see arguō, 279. Co-emō, p. 128, foot-note 15. Coepī, *def.*, 297. Cō-gnōscō; see nōscō, 278. Cogo, ere, coegī, coactum; sec agō, 271, 2. Col·lido; see laedo, 270. Col-ligo; see lego, 271, 2. Col-luceo; see luceo, 265. Colō, ere, uī, cultum, 274. Com-edō, 291, N. 3. Com-miniscor, I, commentus sum, 283. Com-moveo; see moveo, 266. Com-parco (perco); see parco, 272. Comperio, ire, peri, pertum, 287, N. Compesco, ere, pescui, -, 273, N. Com-pingo; see pango, 271. Com-plector, ī, plexus sum. Com-pleo, ere, evi, etum, 261. Com-primō; see premō, 270. Com-pungō, ere, punxī, punctum; see pungō, 271.

Con-cidō; see cadō, 272. Con-cīdō; see caedō, 272. Con-cinō; see canō, 271. Con-cludo; see claudo, 270. Con-cupisco, ere, cupivi, cupitum, 281, N. Con-cutio; see quatio, 270. Con-dō; see $abd\bar{o}$, 271. Con-fercio; see farcio, 286. Con-fero, 292, 2. Con-ficio; see facio, 271, 2. Con-fit, def., 297, III. Con-fiteor; see fateor, 268, 2. Con-fringo; see frango, 271, 2. Con-gruo, ere, i, —, 272, N. 1. Coniveo, ere, nivi, nixi, -, 265; 267, 3. Conor, 260. Con-sero; see sero, 277, N. Con-sisto; see sisto, 271. Con-spicio, ere, spēxī, spēctum, 217, 2. Con-stituo; see statuo, 279. Con-sto, 301; see sto, 259. Consulo, ere, ui, tum, 274. Con-temno; see temno, 272, N. 2. Con-texō; see texō, 274. Con-tingo; see tango, 271; 301. Convalesco, ere, valui, valitum, 281, N. Coquo, ere, coxi, coctum. Cor-ripio; see rapio, 274. Cor-ruo; see ruo, 279. Crebresco, ere, crebrui, —, 282, N. Crēdō, ere, crēdidī, crēditum, 271. Crepo, are, ui, itum, 258. Cresco, ere, crevi, cretum, 277. Cubō, āre, uī, itum, 258. Cūdō, ere, cūdī, cūsum, 272, 3. Cumbo; see accumbo, 273. Cupio, ere, īvī, ītum, 217, 1; 278. Curro, ere, cucurri, cursum, 272. Dēbeō, 262.

Děbeő, 262.
Dě-cerpő, ere, sī, tum, p. 127, footnote 2.
Decet, impers., 299.
Dě-dő; sée abdő, 271.
Dě-fendő, ere, ī, fēnsum, 272, 3.
Dě-fetiscor; see fatiscor, 283.
Dě-fetiscor; see fatiscor, 283.
Dě-fetiscor; see fatiscor, 283.
Dě-fetiscor; see agő, 271, 2.
Děleő, ere, děgī; see agő, 271, 2.
Děleő, ěre, evī, ětum, 261.
Dě-ligő; see legő, 271, 2.
Dě-micő; see micő, 258.
Děmő, ere, děmpsī, děmptum.
Dě-pangő; see pangő, 271.
Dě-primő; see premő, 270.
Depső, ere, uī, itum, tum, 273.
Dě-scendő; see scandő, 272, 8.

Dē-siliō; see saliō, 285. Dē-sipiō; see sapiō, 278. Dē-sum, 290, I. Dē-tendō; see tendō, 271. Dē-tineō; see teneō, 263. Dē-vertor; see vertō, 272, 3. Dīcō, ere, dix, dietum, 238. Dif-ferō, 292, 2. Di-gnosco; see nosco, 278. Di-ligo; see lego, 271, 2. Dī-micō; see $mic\bar{o}$, 258. Dī-rigō, ere, rēxī, rectum, p. 127, foot-note 2. Disco, ere, didicī, —, 271. Dis-crepō; see crepō, 258. Dis-cumbo; see accumbo, 273. Dis-pertior; see partior, 288. Dis-pliceo; see placeo, 262. Dis-sideo; see sedeo, 267, 2. Dī-stinguō; see exstinguō, 269. Dī-stō, 259, N. 2. Dītescō, ere, —, 282. Dīvidō, ere, vīsī, vīsum, 270. Dō, dare, dedī, datum, 259. Doceo, ere, ui, doctum, 263. Dolet, impers., 301. Domo, ārē, uī, itum, 258. Dono, 259. Dūcō, erc, duxī, ctum, 269; 238. Dulcesco, ere, —, 282. Duplico, p. 123, foot-note 6. Dūresco, ere, dūruī, —, 282, N.

77

Edō, ere, ēdī, ēsum, 272, 2; 291. Ef-fārī, p. 142, foot-note 5. Egeō, ere, uī, —, 262, N. 1. E-licio, ere, ui, itum, 273. Ē-ligō; see *legō*, 271, 2. E-mico; see mico, 258. Emineō, ēre, uī, —, 262, N. 1. Emō, ere, ēmī, ēmptum, 271, 2. E-neco, are, ui, tum, 258. Eō, īre, īvī, itum, 295. Esurio, ire, —, itum, 284, N. 2. Ē-vādo, ere, vāsī, vāsum, 270. Ex-ardesco, ere, arsī, arsum, 281, N. Excellō, ere, uī (rare), —, 273, N. Ex-clūdō; see claudō, 270. Ex-currō; see currō, 272. Ex-olēscō; see abolēscō, 277. Expergiscor, ī, experrēctus sum, 283. Ex-perior, īrī, pertus sum, 288, 2. Ex-pleo; see compleo, 261. Ex-plico; see plico, 258. Ex-plodo; see plaudo, 270. Ex-stinguō, ere, stinxī, stinctum, 269. Ex-stō, 259, N. 2. Ex-tendo; see tendo, 271. Ex-tollo; see tollo, 271.

F

Facessō, ere, īvī, ī, ītum, 278. Facio, ere, feci, factum, 217, 1; 238; 271, 2.Fallo, ere, fefelli, falsum, 272. Farciò, ire, farsi, fartum, farctum, 286. Fari, def., 297, II. Fateor, eri, fassus sum, 268, 2. Fatisco, ere, —, 272, N. 2. Fatiscor, i, —, 283. Faveo, ere, favi, fautum, 266. Fendo, obs.; see defendo, 272, 3. Ferio, Ire, —, 284, N. 2. Fero, ferre, tull, lâtum, 292. Ferocio, Ire, —, 284, N. 2. Ferveo, ēre, fervi, ferbui, —, 267, 3. Fīdō, ere, fīsus sum, 283. Fīgō, ere, fīxī, fīxum, 270. Findō, ere, fidī, fissum, 272, 3. Fingo, ere, finxī, fīctum. Finio, 284. Fiō, fierī, factus sum, 294. Flāveō, ēre, —, 262, N. 2. Flectō, ere, flēxī, flēxum, 270. Fleö, ēre, ēvī, ētum, 261. Floreo, ere, ui, —, 262, N. 1. Floresco, ere, florui, -, 281. Fluō, ere, flūxī, flūxum, 279, N. Fōdiō, ere, fōdī, fōssum, 217, 1; 272, 2. Forem, def., 204, 2; 297, III, 2. Foveō, ēre, fōvī, fōtum, 266. Frangō, ere, frēgī, frāctum, 271, 2. Fremo, ere, ui, itum, 273. Frendo, ere, —, frēssum, frēsum, 270. Frico, āre, uī, ātum, tum, 258. Frīgeō, ēre, frīxī (rare), —, 265. Frondeō, ēre, uī, —, 262, N. 1. Fruor, ī, frūctus, fruitus sum, 283. Fugio, ere, fugi, fugitum, 217, 1; Fulciō, īre, fulsī, fultum, 286. Fulgeo, ēre, fulsī, —, 265. Fulgo, 265, foot-note 5. Fulminat, impers., 300. Fundō, ere, fūdī, fūsum, 272, 2. Fungor, ī, functus sum, 283. Furō, ere, uī, —, 273, N.

G

Ganniō, īre, —, 284, N. 2.
Gaudeō, ēre, gāvīsus sum, 268, 3.
Gemō, ere, uī, itum, 273.
Gerō, ere, gessī, gestum, 269.
Gignō, ere, genuī, genitum, 273.
Gliscō, ere, —, 272, N. 2.
Gradior, ī, gressus sum, 217, 3; 283.
Grandescō, ere, —, 282.
Grandinat, impers., 300.
Gravescō, ere, —.

 \mathbf{H}

Habeō, 262.
Haereō, ēre, haesī, haesum, 265.
Hauriō, īre, hausī, haustum, haustūrus, hausūrus, 286.
Havē, def., 297, 111.
Hebeō, ēre, —, 262, N. 2.
Hiscō, ere, —, 272, N. 2.
Honrēō, ēre, uī, —, 262, N. 1.
Hortor, 232; 260.
Hūmeō, ēre, —, 262, N. 2.

T

Icō, ere, īcī, īctum, 272, 3. I-gnôsco; see nosco, 278. Il-licio, ere, lexi, lectum, 217, 2. Il-līdō; see laedō, 270. Imbuō, ere, uī, ūtum, 279. Immineō, ēre, —, 262, N. 2. Im-parco; see parco, 272. Im-pertior; see partior, 288. Im-pingō; see pangō, 271. Im-pleō, p. 124, foot-note 1. In-cendō; see accendō, 272, 3. Incesso, ere, īvī, ī, —, 278. In-cidō; see cadō, 272. In-cīdō; see caedō, 272. In-crepō; see crepō, 258. In-cresco; see cresco, 277. In-cumbo; see accumbo, 273. In-cutio; see quatio, 270. Ind-igeo, ere, ui, —; see egeo, 262, N. 1. Ind-ipiscor; see apiscor, 283. In-do; see abdo, 271. Indulgeo, ere, dulsī, dultum, 264. Ineptio, ire, —, 284, N. 2. In-fero, 292, 2. Infit, def., 297, III. Ingruo, ere, ī, -, 272, N. 1. In-notesco, ere, notui, 282, N. In-olesco; see abolesco, 277. Inquam, def., 297, II. Īn-sideō; see sedeō, 267, 2. Īn-spicio, ere, spēxī, spēctum. In-stō; see stō, 259. Intel-lego; see lego, 271, 2. Interest, impers., 301. Inter-nosco; see nosco, 278. In-veterasco, ere, ravī, ratum, 281, N. Irascor, ī, —, 283. Ir-ruō; see *ruō*, 279.

T

Jaciō, ere, jēcī, jactum, 217, 1; 271, 2. Jubeō, ēre, jūssī, jūssum, 265. Jūrō, 257, N. 2. Juvenescō, ere, —. Juvō, āre, jūvī, jūtum, 259, 2; 301, L

Lābor, ī, lāpsus sum, 283. Lacesso, ere, īvī, ītum, 278. Lacio, obs.; see allicio, p. 130, footnote 8; 217, 2. Lacteo, ere, -, 262, N. 1. Laedo, ere, laesī, laesum, 270. Lambo, ere, ī, —, 272, N. 1. Langueō, ēre, ī, —, 267, 3. Largior, Irī, itus sum, 288. Latēō, ēre, uī, —, 262, N. 1. Lavō, āre, lāvī, lautum, lōtum, lavātum, 259, 2. Lego, erc, legi, lectum, 271, 2. Lēnio, 284. Līberō, 257. Libet, impers., 299. Liceor, ērī, itus sum, 268. Licet, impers., 299. Linō, ere, līvī, lēvī, litum, 278. Linquo, ere, liqui, -, 271, 2. Liqueo, ere, liqui (licui), 267. Liquet, impers., 299. Liquor, i, -, 283. Loquor, i, locutus sum, 283. Luceo, ere, luxi, —, 265. Lucescit, impers., 300. Lūdo, ere, lūsī, lūsum, 270. Lūgeō, ēre, lūxī, —, 265. Luo, ere, lui, —.

М

Macresco, ere, macruī, —, 282, N. Madeo, ere, ui, -, 262, N. 1. Madesco, ere, maduī, —. Maereō, ere, —, 262, N. 2. Mālō, mālle, māluī, —, 293. Mandō, ere, ī, mānsum, 272, 3. Maneo, ere, mansī, mansum, 265. Mātūresco, ere, matūruī, -, 282, N. Medeor, ērī, —, 268, 2. Meminī, def., 297, I. Mentior, īrī, ītus sum, 288. Mercor, ērī, itus sum, 268. Mergō, ere, mersī, mersum, 270. Mētior, īrī, mēnsus sum, 288, 2. Meto, ere, messui, messum, 275. Metuo, ere, uī, —, 272, N. 1. Micō, āre, uī, —, 258. Miniscor, obs.; see comminiscor, 283 Minuo, ere, uī, ūtum, 279. Mīror, 260. Misceo, ēre, miscuī, mīstum, mīxtum, Misereor, ērī, itus or tus sum, 268, 2. Miseret, impers., 299. Mītescō, ere, —, 282. Mittō, ere, mīsī, missum, 270. Molior, īrī, ītus sum, 288,

Mollesco, ere, —, 282. Molo, ere, uī, itum, 273. Moneo, ere, ul, itum, 207; 262. Mordeo, ēre, momordī, morsum, 267. Morior, ī (īrī), mortuus sum, 217, 3; Moveo, ere, movi, motum, 266. Mulceo, ere, mulsī, mulsum, 265.

Mulgeo, ere, mulsī, mulsum, 265. Multiplico, p. 123, foot-note 6. Mūnio, 284.

Nanciscor, I, nactus (nanctus) sum, 283. Nāscor, ī, nātus sum, 283.

Neco, p. 123, foot-note 4. Necto, ere, nexī, nexuī, nexum, 270;

Neg-lego, erc, lexī, lectum; sec lego, 271, 2.

Neō, ēre, nēvī, nētum, 261. Ne-queō, īre, īvī, itum, 296. Nigresco, ere, nigrui, Ningō, ere, ninxī, —, 272, N. 1. Niteō, ēre, uī, —, 262, N. 1. Nītor, ī, nīsus, nīxus sum, 283. Noceō, 262.

Nolo, nolle, nolui, —, 293. Nōminō, 257.

Nosco, ere, novi, notum, 278. Nūbo, ere, nūpsi, nūptum, 269. Nupturio, ire, ivi, —, 284, N. 2.

Ob-dō; see $abd\bar{o}$, 271.

Ob-dormisco, ere, dormivi, dormitum,

Oblīviscor, ī, oblītus sum, 283. Ob-mūtesco, ere, mūtuī, —, 282, N.

Ob-side \bar{o} ; see $sede\bar{o}$, 267, 2. Ob-solēsco; see abolēsco, 277.

Ob-st \ddot{o} ; see $st\ddot{o}$, 259.

Ob-surdesco, ere, surdui, —. Ob-tineo; see teneo, 263.

Oc-cidō; see cadō, 272. Oc-cido; see caedo, 272.

Oc-cinō; see canō, 271. Oc-cipio; see capio, 271, 2. Occulo, ere, ui, tum, 274.

Odi, def., 297, I. Of-fendo; see defendo, 272, 3.

Of-fero, 292, 2. Oleo, ere, ui, —, 262, N. 1. Olesco, obsolete; see abolesco, 277.

Operio, īre, uī, tum, 285. Oportet, impers., 299.

Op-perior, īrī, pertus, perītus sum, 288, 2,

Ordior, īrī, orsus sum, 288, 2,

Orior, īrī, ortus sum, 288, 2. Os-tendo; see tendo, 271. Ovat, def., 297, III.

Paciscor, ī, pactus sum, 283.

Paenitet, impers., 299. Palleō, ēre, uī, —, 262, N. 1.

Pando, ere, ī, pānsum, passum, 272, 3. Pangō, ere, pepigī, pāctum, 271.

Pangō, ere, panxī, pēgī, panctum, pāctum, 271.

Parco, ere, peperci (parsi), parsum, 272.

Pāreō, ēre, uī, itum, 262.

Pario, ere, peperi, partum, 217, 1;

Partior, īrī, ītus sum, 288. Parturio, ire, ivi, -, 284, N. 2.

Pāscō, ere, pāvī, pāstum, 276. Pateō, ēre, uī, —, 262, N. 1.

Patior, ī, passus sum, 217, 3; 283. Paveo, ere, pavi, -, 266.

Pecto, ere, pēxī, pēxum, 270. Pel-licio, ere, lexi, lectum, 217, 2.

Pello, ere, pepuli, pulsum, 272. Pendeō, ērc, pependī, pēnsum, 267.

Pendō, ere, pependī, pēnsum, 272. Per-agō, p. 128, foot-note 13.

Per-cello: see excello, 273, N. Per-censeo; see censeo, 263.

Per-do, ere, didī, ditum; see abdo,

Pergo (for per-rigo), ere, perrexi, perrectum; see rego, 269.

Per-petior; see patior, 283.

Per-sto; see sto, 259. Per-taedet, p. 143, foot-note 8.

Per-tineo; see teneo, 263. Pessum-do, 259, N. 1.

Petō, ere, īvī, ītum, 278. Piget, impers., 299.

Pingo, ere, pinxī, pīctum.

Pinso (piso), ere, i, ui, pīnsitum, pīstum, pīnsum, 272, 3; 273.

Placeo, 262; 301.

Plaudo, ere, sī, sum, 270.

Plecto, ere, plexi, plexum, 270. Plector; see amplector, 283.

Pleo, obsolete; see compleo, 261. Plico, are, avī, uī, atum, itum, 258.

Pluo, ere, i or pluvi, —, 272, N. 1;

Polleö, ēre, —, 262, N. 2. Polliceor, ērī, itus sum, 268. Pono, ere, posui, positum, 273.

Posco, ere, poposci, —, 272. Pos-sideo; see sedeo, 267, 2. Possum, posse, potui, -, 290, II,

Potior, irī, ītus sum, 288.

Pūnio, 284.

Pōtō, āre, āvī, ātum, um, 257, N. 1. Prae-cino; see cano, 271. Prae-curro; see curro, 272. Prae-sideo; see sedeo, 267, 2. Prae-sto; see sto, 259; 301. Prae-sum, 290, I. Prae-vertor; see verto, 272, 3. Prandeo, ere, i, pransum, 267, 3. Prehendo, ere, i, hensum, 272, 3. Premō, ere, pressī, pressum, 270. Prēndō, p. 130, foot-note 1. Prōd-igō; see agō, 271. Prō-dō; see abdō, 271. Proficiscor, I, profectus sum, 283. Pro-fiteor; see fateor, 268, 2. Promo, ere, prompsī, promptum. Pro-sum, prodesse, profui, -, III. Prō-tendō; see tendō, 271. Psallo, ere, I, —, 272, N. 1. Pudet, impers., 299. Puerasco, ere, —, 282. Pūgnō, 257. Pungo, ere, pupugi, punctum, 271.

O

Quaerō, ere, quaesīvī, quaesītum, 278. Quaesō, def., 297, III. Quatio, ere, quassī, quassum, 217, 1; 270. Queōo, īre, īvī, itum, 296. Queror, ī, questus sum, 283. Quiescō, ere, quiēvī, quiētum, 277.

\mathbf{R}

Rādō, ere, rāsī, rāsum, 270. Rapiō, ere, rapuī, raptum, 217, 1; 274. Raucio, ire, rausi, rausum, 287. Re-censeo; see censeo, 263. Re-cidō; see $cad\bar{o}$, 272. Re-cīdō; see caedō, 272. Re-crūdesco, ere, crūduī, 282, N. Red-arguo; see arguo, 279. Red-do; see abdō, 271. Re-fellō; see fallō, 272. Re-ferō; see ferō, 292. Refert, impers., 301. Rego, ere, rexi, rectum, 209; 269. Re-linquo; see linquo, 271, 2. Re-miniscor, 1, —, 283. Renīdeō, ēre, —, 262, N. 2. Reor, rērī, ratus sum, 268, 2. Re-pangō; see pangō, 271. Re-parco; see parco, 272. Re-perio, īre, perī, pertum, 287, N. Re-plico, p. 123, foot-note 6. Re-sideo; see sedeo, 267, 2. Re-sipeō; see sapiō, 278.

Re-sonō; soe sonō, 258.
Re-spergō; see spargō, 270.
Re-spondeō, 255, 1., 4.
Re-tendō; see tendō, 271.
Re-tineō; see tendō, 271.
Re-vertor; see vertō, 272, 3.
Re-viviscō, ere, vixī, victum, 281, N.
Rideō, ēre, rīsī, rīsum, 265.
Ringor, 1, rīctus sum, 283.
Rōdō, ere, rōsī, rōsum, 270.
Rorat, impers., 300.
Rubeō, ēre, uī, —, 262, N. 1.
Rudō, ere, īvī, ītum, 278.
Rumpō, ore, rūpī, ruptum, 271, 2.
Ruō, ere, ruī, rutum, ruitūrus, 279.

S

Saepiō, īre, psī, ptum, 286. Sāgiō, īre, —, 284, N. 2. Saliō, īre, uī (iī), tum, 285. Salvē, def., 297, III. Sancio, īre, sanxī, sancītum, sanctum, Sapiō, ere, īvī, uī, —, 217, 1; 278. Sarcio, ire, sarsi, sartum, 286. Sat-ago; see ago, 271, 2. Satis-do, 259, N. 1. Satis-facio, p. 129, foot-note 1. Scabo, ere, scabī, —, 271, 2. Scando, ere, dī, scansum, 272, 3. Scindo, ere, scidī, scissum, 272, 3. Sciŏ, 284. Scisco, ere, scīvī, scītum, 281, N. Seco, are, ui, tum, 258. Sedeō, ēre, sēdī, sessum, 267. Sē-ligō; see legō, 271, 2. Sentio, īre, sensī, sēnsum, 287. Sepelio, īre, īvī, sepultum, 284. Sequor, ī, secutus sum, 283. Sero, ere, sevī, satum, 277, N. Sero, ere, seruī, sertum, 274. Sido, ere, i, —, 272, N. 1. Sileo, ere, ui, —, 262, N. 1. Sinō, ere, sīvī, situm, 278. Sisto, ere, stitī, statum, 271. Sitio, īre, īvī, —, 284. Soleo, ēre, solitus sum, 268, 3. Solvo, ere, solvī, solutum, 272, 3. Sono, āre, uī, itum, 258. Sorbeo, ere, ui, —, 262, N. 1. Sortior, īrī, ītus sum, 288. Spargo, ere, sparsī, sparsum, 270. Specio, obs., 217, 2. Sperno, ere, sprevi, spretum, 277. Spēro, 257. Splendeō, ēre, uī, —, 262, N. 1. Spondeo, ere, spopondi, sponsum, Squāleō, ēre, —, 262, N. 2.

Statuō, ere, uī, ūtum, 279.
Sternō, ere, strāvī, strātum, 276.
Sternoō, ere, 1, —, 272, N. 1.
Stertō, ere, uī, —, 273, N.
Stinguō, ere, —, p. 127, foot-note 3.
Stō, āre, stetī, stātum, 259.
Strepō, ere, uī, itum, 273.
Strīdeō, ēre, strīdī, —, 267, 3.
Strīdeō, ēre, strīdī, —, 267, 3.
Strīdō, ere, ī, —, 272, N. 1.
Struōc, ere, strūxī, strūctum, 279, N.
Studeō, ēre, uī, —, 262, N. 1.
Stupeō, ēre, uī, —, 266.
Suādeō, ēre, sī, sum, 265.
Sub-dō, ere, didī, ditum; see abdō, 271.
Sub-isīdō; see agē, 271, 2.
Sub-silīō; see satiō, 285.
Suc-cedō; see cēdō, 270.
Suc-cendō; see acendō, 272, 3.
Suc-censēō; see cēnsēō, 263.

Suc-edő; see satu, 250.
Suc-edő; see satu, 250.
Suc-edő; see satu, 272, 3.
Suc-ednseő; see cénseő, 263.
Suc-idő; see caedő, 272.
Suc-cidő; see caedő, 272.
Suc-cidő; see caedő, 272.
Suc-cidő; see creső, 277.
Suf-ferő, 292, 2.
Suf-ferő, 292, 2.
Suf-feiő; see fació, 271, 2.
Suf-feiő; see fació, 271, 2.
Suf-gerő; see gerő, 269.
Sum, esse, fuí, —, 203, 1; 204.
Súmő, ere, psi, ptun, 269.
Superbió, ire, —, 284, N. 2.
Super-jació, p. 129, foot-note 2.
Supplicó, 258, foot-note.
Sup-pönő; see pörő, 273.
Surgő (for sur-rigő), ere, surrēxi, surrēctum; see regő, 269.

т

Taceo, 262.

Taedet, impers., 299.
Tango, ere, tetigī, tāctum, 271.
Temnō, ere, —, 272, N. 2.
Tendō, ere, tetendī, tentum, tēnsum, 271.
Teneō, ēre, uī, tum, 263.
Tepescō, ere, tepuī, —, 281.
Tergeō, ēre, tersī, tersum, 265; p. 128, foot-note 3.
Tergō, ere, tersī, tersum, 270.
Terō, ere, trīvī, trītum, 278.
Texō, ere, uī, tum, 274.
Timeō, ēre, uī, —, 262, N. 1.
Tollō, ere, sustulī, sublātum, 271.

Tondeō, ēre, totondī, tōnsum, 267.
Tonō, āre, uī (itum), 258; 300.
Torpeō, ēre, uǐ, —, 262, N. 1.
Torqueō, ēre, torsī, tortum, 264.
Torreō, ēre, torruī, tostum, 263.
Trā-dō; see abdō, 271.
Trahō, ere, traxī, tractum, 269.
Tremō, ere, uĭ, —, 273, N.
Tribuō, ere, uĭ, ūtum, 279.
Trūdō, ere, trūsī, trūsum, 270.
Tueor, ērī, tuitus, tūtus sum, 268.
Tundō, ere, tutudī, tūnsum, tūsum, 272.
Turgeō, ēre, tursī (rare), —, 265.
Tussiō, ire, 284, N. 2.

TT

Ulciscor, ī, ultus sum, 283. Urgeō, ēre, ursī, —, 265. Ūrō, ere, ūssī, ūstum, 269. Ūtor, ī, ūsus sum, 283.

v

Vādō, ere, —, 272, N. 2. Vāgiō, īre, īvī, -, 284. Vehō, ere, vēxī, vēctum, 269. Vello, ere, vellī (vulsī), vulsum, 272, 3, Vēndō, ere, didī, ditum, 271. Ven-eo, 295, 3. Venio, ire, veni, ventum, 287, N. Vēnum-do, 259, N. 1. Vereor, ērī, veritus sum, 268. Vergo, ere, —, 272, N. 2. Verrō, ere, verrī, versum, 272, 3. Vertō, ere, tī, sum, 272, 3. Vertor; see verto, 272, 3. Vescor, ī, —, 283. Veterasco, ere, ravī, —, 276. Veto, are, ui, itum, 258. Video, čre, vidi, visum, 267, 2. Vilesco, ere, vilui, —, 282, N. Vincio, ire, vinxi, vinctum, 286, Vinco, ere, vici, victum, 271, 2. Virco, čre, ui, —, 262, N. 1. Viresco, ere, virui, —, 281. Vīsō, ere, ī, um, 272, 3. Vīvō, ere, vīxī, vīctum, 269. Voco, 257. Volo, velle, volui, —, 293. Volvo, ere, volvi, voluitum, 272, 3. Vomō, ere, uī, itum, 273. Voveo, ere, vovi, votum, 266.

INDEX OF SUBJECTS.

Note.—The numbers refer to articles, not to pages. Acc. or accus. = accusative; adjs. = adjectives; comp. = composition; compds. = compounds; conj. = conjugation; conjunc. = conjunctions; constr. = construction; f. = and the following; gen, or genit. = genitive; gend. = gender; ger. = gerund; loc, or locat. = locative; preps. = prepositions; w. = with.

It has not been thought advisable to overload this index with such separate words as may be readily referred to classes, or to general rules, or even with such exceptions as may be readily found under their respective heads. Accordingly, the numerous exceptions in Dec. III. are not inserted, as they may be best found under the respective endings, 69-115.

A, \bar{a} , sound, 5; 10 ff. \bar{A} final short-ened, 21, 2. -A in nom., accus., and voc. pl., 46, 2, 1). A-nouns, Decl. I., 48; a-verbs, 205. Nouns in -a, Decl. III., 69; quant. of increm., 585, I., 3; gender, 111. - A, adverbs in, 304, I., 3. -A, prepositions in, p. 145, foot-note 11; p. 149, foot-note 2; adverbs in, 304, II., 2. -A, -ā, suffix, 320. -A, derivatives in, 326, A, changed in compds., 344, 4, N. 1. A or ā, final, 580, I.; 580, III., N. 2; 581, III.; in increm. of decl., 585; 585, I.; conj., 586; 586, I. A, ab, abs, in compds., 344, 5; in compds., w. dat., 386, 2; w. abl., 434, N. 1. Ab, as adverb, 379, 2, N. A, ab, abs, with abl., 434; 434, I.; of agent, 388, 2; 415, I. A, ab, abs, 434, N. 2. A, ab, abs, designating abode, 446, N. 4. A, ab, w. nating account 420, N. 4. A, ao, W. ger., p. 316, foot-note 1.
Abbreviations, 649, 1; 650.
Abbine, denoting interval, p. 230, foot-note 2; 430, N. 3.
Abies, &s in, 581, VI., 1.

-ābilis, ā in, 587, III., 2.

ABLATIVE, sing., original ending of, p. 20, foot-note 5. Abl. sing. in Decl. III., 62, II. ff.; 63, 2; 64, N. 3; in adjs., 154, notes 1 and 2; 157, N. Abl. plur., Decl. I., 49, 4; Decl. III., 68, 5; Decl. IV., 117. ABLATIVE, translation of, 48, w. foot-

note 4. Relations denoted, 367. Syntax, 411 ff. Abl. w. locat., 363, 4, 2); w. adjs., 391, II., 3; 400, 3; w. refert, 408, I., 2; w. verbs of accusing, etc., 410, II., 3; w. verbs of condemning, 410, III. Abl. of place, 412; 425 ff.; separation, source, cause, 413 ff. Abl. w. comparat., 417. Instrumental abl., 418 ff. Abl. of accompaniment, 419; Abl. in special conmeans, 420. structions, 421. Abl. of price, 422; difference, 423; specification, 424. Locative abl., 425 ff. Abl. of time, 429. Abl. abs., 431. Abl. w. preps., 432; 434; 435; w. compds., 434, N. 1; w. adverbs, 437. Infin. in abl. abs., 439, IV.

Ablative sing. in a, 581, III., 1. -**ābrum**, ā in, 587, I., 1.

Abs, in compds., 344, 5. Abs w. abl., 434; 434, N. 2. Absente, constr., 438, 6, N.

Absolute Abl., 431.

Absolvo, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Absque, w. abl., 434.

Abstract nouns, 39, 2, 2); plur., 130,

2 and 3. Abstract nouns from adjs., 325.

Absum, w. dat., p. 200, foot-note 2. Abest, constr., p. 276, foot-note 2. Abunde, w. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3.

-ābundus, ā in, 587, III., 2. -ābus for -īs, Decl. I., 49, 4.

Āc, 310, 1; 554, I.; meaning as, 451, 5; than, 459, 2; 554, I., 2, N. Ac sī, 311, 2; w. subj. in conditions, 513, II.

Acatalectic, 603, N. 3. Accent, rhythmic, 599. Accentuation, 17 ff.

Accidit, constr., p. 276, foot-note 2. Accingo, constr., 377.

Accommodatus w. dat., p. 205, foot-

note 1.

Accompaniment, abl. of, 418 ff. Accusative, formation of, Decl. II., 51, 2, 6); Decl. III., 58, 1, 5); 62, II. ff.; 63, 1; 64, N. 2; 67, N. 2; 68, 2 and 6; in adjs., 154, N. 1;

158, 1.

Accusative, syntax of, 370 ff. object, 371 ff.; cognate, 371, I. and II.; acc. of effect, 371, I., 2, 2); w. verbal adjs. and nouns, 371, I., N.; w. compds., 372. Two accs., 373 ff. Predicate acc., 373, 1. Poetic acc., 377. Adverbial acc., 378 ff. acc., 377. Adverbial acc., 378 ff. Acc. of specification, 378; of time and space, 379; of limit, 380; poetical dat. for, 380, 4. Acc. in exclam., 381. Acc. for gen., 407. Acc. w. refert and interest, 408, I., 3; w. preps., 432; 433; 435; w. adverbs, 437; as object, w. infin., 534. Acc. as subj. of infin., 536. Acc. of ger., 542, III.

Accusative, Greek, in -as, 581, V., 2. Acc. plur. in -us, 581, IX., 2. Accusing, constr. w. verbs of, 409,

II.; 410, II.

Acer, deel., 153. -**āceus**, adjs. in, 329; ā in, 587, III.,1. Acies, decl., 122, 2.

Acquitting, constr. w. verbs of, 409, II.

-ācrum, ā in, 587, I., 1.

Action, repeated, in temp. clauses, 518, N. 2, 2); 518, 1. Active voice, 195. Active and passive constr., 464.

-ācundus, ā in, 587, III., 2. Acus, decl., 117, 1; gend., 118.

Ad in compds., 344, 5; in compds. w. two accs., 376; w. dat., 386. Ad w. acc., 433; 433, I.; after adjs., 391, II., 1; w. refert and interest, 408, I., 3. Ad designating abode, 446, N. 4. Ad w. ger., p. 315, foot-note 5; denoting purpose, 542, III., N. 2.

Adeō, 551, N. 2; 554, I., 4. -ades, a in, 587, II., 1.

Adfatim w. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3; quant. of pen., p. 345, foot-note 2. Adficio w. abl., 420, 2. Adfinis w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3;

p. 210, foot-note 3.

Adipiscor w. gen., 410, V., 3.

Adjaceo w. acc. or dat., p. 202, foot-

Adjective, 146; decl. of, 147 ff.; ir-

regular, 151; 159. Compar., 160 ff. Numerals, 172 ff.; decl. of, 175 ff. Demon., 186, 4. Rel., 187, 4. Inter., 188, 4. Derivation, 328 ff. Composition, 342. W. dat., 391; 400, 1; w. gen., 397, 3; 399; of gerund, p. 315, foot-note 2. Adj. for gen., 395, N. 2. Adj. w. abl., 400, 3; 414, III.; 416; 420; 421. Agreement, 438 ff. Use, 440. W. force of substantives. 441: of clauses force of substantives, 441; of clauses, 442; of adverbs, 443. Compar., use, 444. Adj. separated from noun, 565, 3 and 4. Position of modifiers of adj., 566; of adj. w. gen., 565, 2.

Admisceo w. dat., 385, 3; p. 201,

foot-note 1.

Admodum, 304, I., 2. Admoneo, constr., 374, 2; p. 274, footnote 1.

Admonishing, constr. w. verbs of, 409, I.; 410, I.

Adolescens, compar., 168, 4.

Adonic verse, 628, I. Adopted son, how named, 649, 3. Ador, quant. of increm., 585, II., 1. Adulor w. acc. or dat., p. 202, foot-

Adulter, decl., 51, 4, 3). Adverbial acc., 378. Adverbial com-

parison, 170. Adverses, 303 ff. Numeral adverbs, 181. Compar., 306. Adverbs w. nouns, 359, N. 4; 443, N. 4; w. dat., 392; w. gen., 397, 4. Adverbs as preps., 437. Adverbs for adjs., 443, N. 3. Use of adverbs, 551 ff. Position of modifiers of adverb, 568. Adverb between prep. and case, 569, II., 3. -E, in adverbs, 581, IV., 4. Adverb redundant, 636, III., 7.

Adversative conjuncs., 310, 8; 554, Advers. asyndeton, p. 370,

foot-note 1.

Adversum, adversus, w. acc., 433. Ae, sound, 6; 12; changed to i, 344, 4, N. 2.

Aedes, sing. and plur., 132.

Aeger, decl., 150. Aegre fero, constr., p. 310, foot-note 2.

Aenēās, decl., 50. Aequālis w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Aequī facere, 401, N. 4.

Aer, quant. of increm., 585, III., 4. Aetās, decl., 58.

Aether, quant. of increm., 585, III., 4. -aeus, adjs. in., 331.

Age, expression of, p. 222, foot-note 4, Ages of Lat. literature, 640.

Age, interj., p. 152, foot-note 4. Agent, abl. of, with \bar{a} or ab, 388, 2; 415, I. Dat. of, 388. Ager, decl., 51.

-aginta, quant. of antepen., 587, ПІ., з.

Agnomen, 649, 2 and 3.

Agnomination, 637, XI., 7. Agō ut, 498, II., N. 2; id agō w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 2.

-āgō, nouns in, 324, N.; 327, 4, N.; ā in, 587, I., 2.

Agreeable, dat. w. adjs. signifying, 391, I.

AGREEMENT, of Nouns, 362 ff. noun, 362; in gend., 362, 1. positive, 363; in gend., 363, 1. Of adject., 438 ff.; w. clause, 438, 3; Ōf synesis, 438, 6; w. one noun for another, 438, 7; w. two or more nouns, 439; w. part. gen., 397, 3, N. 1. Of pronouns, 445; w. two or more antecedents, 445, 3; attraction, 445, 4; synesis, 445, 5; w. clause, 445, 7. Of verbs, 460 ff.; synesis, 461; w. appos. or pred. noun, 462; w. compd. subject, 463. Ah, ahā, 312.

-āī for -ae, 49, 2; ā in, 577, I., 1, (1). Aio for agio, p. 19, foot-note 8; posi-

tion, 569, V.

-**āis** in prop. names, \tilde{a} in, 577, 5, N.;

587, I., 3.

-al final shortened, 21, 2, 2). Nouns in -al, 63; 65, 2; quant. of increm., 585, I., 1. -Al in Plautus for -al, 580, III., N. 2.

Alacer, decl., 153, N. 1; superlat.

wanting, 168, 3.

Albus, without compar., 169, 4.
Alcaic verse, 604, N. 1; 628, VIII.
and IX.; 619, 1. Alcaic stanza, 631, I.

Alemanian stanza, 631, XIX.; 631, IX.

Alec, ālex, quant. of increm., 585, III.,

-ālia, names of festivals in, 136, 3. Alicubi, alicunde, 305.

Alienus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1; w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3.

Aliqua, aliquam, aliquando, 305.

Aliquantus, 191.

Aliquē, use, 455, 1. Aliquēs, 190, 2; 191; use of, 455. Aliquē, 305, II.

Aliquot, 191.

Aliquotiens, aliquovorsum, 305. -ālis, adjs. in, 330; compar., 168, 2; 169, 3. A in -alis, 587, I., 4.

Aliud-nihil aliud nisi, nihil aliud quam, 555, III., 1.

Alius, decl., 151; w. abl., 417, 1, N. 4. Use of alius, 459. Alius-alium

w. pl. verb, 461, 3. Allegory, 637, II., 1. Alliteration, 637, XI., 1.

Allobrox, quant. of increm., 585, II., 3. Alphabet, 2 ff. Letters of, indeel., 128, 1.

Alter, decl., 151. Alter for secundus, p. 66, foot-note 4. Use of alter, 459. Alter-alterum, w. pl. verb, 461, 3. Alteruter, decl., 151, N. 2.

Alvus, gend., 53, 1. -am in adverbs, 304, I., 3, 2).

 $Am\bar{a}ns$, decl., 157. Ambi, amb, insep. prep., 308; in compds., 344, 6.

Ambō, decl., 175, N. 2.

Ambō, decl., 175, N. 2.

Amicus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1.

I in amicus, p. 345, foot-note 4.

Amnis, decl., 62, IV.

Amphiarāīdēs, ī in, p. 345, foot-note 3. Amphora, 648, III. Amplius without quam, 417, 1, N. 2.

Amyelidės, į in, p. 345, foot-note 3. An, 310, 2, N.; 311, 8; 353. An = 'whether not,' 529, II., 3, N. 2; = aut, 529, II., 3, N. 3. A in an,

579, 3.

-an, suffix, 320, I. -**āna**, ā in, 587, I., Anacoluthon, 636, IV., 6. Anacrusis, 618, N. 3.

Analysis of verbal endings, 241 ff. Anapaest, 597, N. 1; cyclic, 598, 1, 4).

Anaphora, 636, III., 3.

Anas, as in, 581, V., 1; quant. of increm., 585, I., 4, (2).

Anastrophe, 636, V., 1.

Ancient forms of pronouns, 184, 5; of verbs, 240.

Ancīle, decl., 136, 3. Androgeos, decl., 54.

-**āneus**, ā in, 587, III., 1.
Anguis, decl., 62, IV.

Anhēlitus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 2. Animal, decl., 63.

Animī, constr., 399, III., 1; 410, V., 2. Anio, quant. of increm., 585, III., 2. Annon, 310, 2, N.; 353, 2, N. 3. Answers, 352.

-ant, suffix, 320, I.

Ante in compds., 344, 5; in compds. w. dat., 386. Ante w. acc., 433; 433, I.; denoting interval, 430. Ante w. ger., p. 315, foot-note 5. Anteā, 304, IV., N. 2.

Antecedent, 445, N.; omitted, 445, 6.

Clause as anteced., 445, 7. Anteced. attracted. 445, 9.

Antecēdo w. acc. or dat., p. 202, foot-

note 1. Ante-classical period, 640, I.

Anteeō in synaeresis, 608, III., N. 1; w. acc. or dat., p. 202, foot-note 1. Antehāc, 304, IV., N. 2.

Antequam, 311, 1; in temp. clauses,

Anticipation, prolepsis, 440, 2; 636,

IV., 3.

Antīcus, ī in, p. 345, foot-note 4. Antimeria, 636, IV., 1.

-ānus, adjs. in, 330; 331; ā in, 587,

Anxiety, constr. w. verbs of, 498, III. -āon in prop. names, ā in, 577, 5, N. Apage, interj., 812, 4.

Aphaeresis, 635, 1.

Apis, genit. plur., p. 36, foot-note 3/

Apocope, 635, 3. Apophasis, 637, XI., 2.

Aposiopesis, 636, I., 3; 637, XI., 3. Apostrophe, 637, X.

Apparent agent, 388.

Appendix with short increm., p. 343, foot-note 2.

Appendix, 634 ff.

Apposition, partitive, 364. Clauses in apposition, 501, III.

Appositional genitive, 396, VI.

Appositive, 359, N. 2; agreement of, 363; in gend., 363, 1; force of, 363, 3. Infin. as appos., 539, II.

Aprīcus, ī in, p. 345, foot-note 4. Aptus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1.

Aptus qui w. subj., 503, II., 2. Apud w. acc., 433; 433, I.; designating abode, 446, N. 4.

-ār final shortened, 21, 2, 2). Nouns in ar, 63; 65, 2; quant. of increm., 585, I., 1. Gend. of nouns in ar, $\bar{a}r$, 111; 112. $-\bar{A}r$ in Plautus for -ar, 580, III., N. 2.

Arar, Araris, decl., 62, III., 1. Arbor, quant. of increm., 585, II., 3. Arceo w. dat., p. 200, foot-note 2.

Archilochian verse, 604, N. 1; 628, X.; 616, N.; 617, N.; 619, N.; stanza, 631, XI. and XII.; 631, stanza, 631, X XIV. and XV.

Arcus, decl., 117, 1.

Arènae, locat., 426, 2, N.
Ariès, ès in, 581, VI., 1.
-āris, adjs. in, 330; compar., 169, 3. \bar{A} in -aris, 587, I., 6.

Aristophanic verse, 628, II.

-ārium, nouns in, 323; ā in, 587, III., 1.

18

-ārius, nouns in, 324; adjs. in, 330; \bar{a} in, 587, III., 1.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES, 559 ff.; words, 560 ff.; gen. rules, 560 ff.; effect of emphasis and euphony, 561; chiasmus, 562; kindred words, 563; words w. com. relation, 564; special rules, 565 ff.; modifiers of nouns, 565; adjs., 566; verbs, 567; adverbs, 568; special words, 569; demon., 569; I.; preps., 569, II.; conjuncs. and relat., 569, III.; nõn, 569, IV.; inquam, āiō, 569, V.; voc., 569, VI.; clauses, 570 ff.; as subj. or pred., 571; subord. elements, 572; periods, 573. Arsis, 600.

Article, 48, 6.

Artus, decl., 117, 1, 2); p. 50, footnote 1.

-ārus, \bar{a} in, 587, I., 6. Arx, decl., 64.

Aryan languages, 638.

Aryan languages, 605.
-\$\bar{a}\$s in genite, Decl. I., 49, 1. Nouns in -\bar{a}s, Decl. I., 50; Decl. III., 64, 2, 3); decl., 79. Gender of nouns in -as, -\bar{a}s, 105, 106. -\bar{A}s in adverbs, 304, I., 3, 2). -\bar{A}s, suffix, 320, I. -\bar{A}s, adjs. in, 331. Quant. of -\bar{a}s, -as, 580, III.; 581, V.; \bar{a} in voc. of nouns in, 581, III., 2. Quant. of increase of nouns in, 585, I. 3. of increm. of nouns in -as, 585, I., 3.

As, 646; 648, I. Asclepiadean verse, 628, IV. and V.;

631, IV.-VIII. Asking, construction w. verbs of, 374.

Asper, decl., 150, N. Aspergo, constr., p. 198, foot-note 1.

Aspirate, 3, II., 3. -**āssim** in perf. subj., 240, 4.

Assimilation of vowels, 25; of consonants, 33; 34.

Assimilis w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3. Assis, constr., p. 213, foot-note 3.

-āssō in fut. perf., 240, 4. Asyndeton, 636, I., 1.

At, 310, 3; 554, III., 2.
-at, neut. stems in, 58, 2. -A
Plautus for -at, 580, III., N. 2.
Atat, interj., 312, 1. -At in

-aticus, a in, 587, III., 2.

-atilis, quant. of pen., 587, II., 5; antepen., 587, III., 2.

-atim, ā in, 587, I., 7.
Atque, 310, 1; 554, I.; meaning as, 451, 5; than, 459, 2; 554, I., 2, N.

Que—atque, 554, I., 5. Atqui, 310, 3; 554, III., 2. -ātrum, ā in, 587, I., 1.

Attanen, 554, III., 3. Attraction, 636, IV., 5; of pron., 445, 4 and 8; of anteced., 445, 9. Attributive adj., 438, 2.

-ātus, nouns in, 324; ā in, 587, I., 7.

Au, interj., 312, 3. Au, sound, 6; 12; changed in compds., 344, 4, N. 3.

Audāx, decl., 156.

Audiens w. two dats., 390, N. 3. Audio w. pred. noun, 362, 2, N. 1; w. infin., 535, I., 1.

Aureus, 646.

Ausim for auserim, 240, 4. Aut, 310, 2; 554, II., 2. Aut—aut, 554, II., N. Position of aut in poetry, 569, III., N. Autem, 310, 3; 554, III., 2 and 4;

position, 569, III.

Authors, Latin, 640.

Autonomasia, 637, III., 1. Auxilium, auxilia, 132.

Aversion, gen. w. adjs. of, 399, I., 1. Avidus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2; other constrs., 400.

Avis, decl., 62, IV. -āvus, ā in, 587. I., 6.

-ax, gen. of nouns in, 91; verbals in, 333; w. ger., 399, II. Quant. of increm. of words in -ax, 585, 1., 4,

Axō for ēgerō, 240, 4.

B, sound, 7, N.; changed to p, 33, 1; to m, 33, 3, N.; 34, 3. Quant. of monosyl. in, 579, 2.

Baccar, quant. of increm., 585, I., 4,

Bacchius, 597, N. 1.

Becoming, two dats. w. verbs of, 390, N. 1, 1).

Beginning, constr. w. verbs of, 533, I., Beginning of sentence emphatic, 561, I.

Being, two dats. w. verbs of, 890, N. Being able, wont, accus-1, 1). tomed, constr. w. verbs of, 533, I., 2. Belīdes, ī in, p. 345, foot-note 3.

Believing, verbs of, w. dat., 385, II. Infin. w. verbs of, 535, I., 1, (2).

Bellum, decl., 51, 8. Belli, locat., 51, 8; 426, 2.

Belonging to, gen. w. adjs. signifying, 391, 4.

Bene, compar., 306, 2; compds. w. dat., 384, 4, N. 1. E final in bene, 581, IV., 4.

Benefiting, verbs of, w. dat., 385, I. -ber, p. 155, foot-note 1; names of months in, 65, 1, 1).

 $Bib\bar{\imath}, i \text{ in, } 590, 1.$ Bīlis, decl., 62, IV.

-bilis, p. 155, foot-note 1; verbals in, 333; w. dat., 391, I.; compar., 168, 1. Quant. of pen. of -bilis, 587, II., 5. Bis, i in, 579, 3. Bonī facere, consulere, 401, N. 4.

Bonus, decl., 148, compar., 165. Bos, decl., 66; quant. of increm., 581, II., 3.

Brachylogy, 636, II. Brazen age, 640, III., 1. -brum, nouns in, 327. -bs, decl. of nouns in, 86.

Bubae, interj., 312, 1. Bucolic diaeresis, 611, 2; bucol. caesura, p. 356, foot-note 5.

-bulum, suffix, p. 155, foot-note 1; nouns in, 327.

-bundus, verbals in, 383. $B\bar{u}ris$, decl., 62, II. Buying, gen. w. verbs of, 405.

C in place of G, 2, 1 and 3. Sound of c, 7; 13. C changed to g, 33, 2; dropped, 36, 3. Nouns in c, 74. dropped, 36, 3. Nouns in c, 74. Gend., 111. Quant. of final syllables in c, 580, II., w. N. 1.

-**că**, suffix, 320, II. Caecus, superl. wanting, 168, 3. Caelum, plur., 143, 1. Caesura, caesural pause, 602. Calcar, decl., 63.

Calendar, Roman, 641 ff. Calends, 642, I., 1.

Calix w. short increm., p. 343, footnote 2.

Calling, verbs of, w. two accs., 373. Campester, decl., 153, N. 1. Canis, decl., p. 36, foot-note 3.

Capitis w. verbs, 410, III., N. 2. Cappadox, quant. of increm., 585, II.,

Capsō for cepero, 240, 4. Caput, decl., 58.

Carbasus, gend., 53, 1; plur., 142.

Carcer, carceres, 132. Cardinals, 172; 174; decl., 175 ff.

Carmen, decl., 60. Carō, decl., 64, N. 1. Cārus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1; w. abl., p. 226, foot-note 1.

Cases, ETYMOLOGY OF, 45 ff. Cases alike, 46, 2. Case suffixes, 46, 1; in Decl. III., 57; 67. Case end-

ings, 47, N. 3; in Decl. I., 48; Decl. Higs, 41, 18.0; III Decl. II, 48; Decl. II., 51, 2, 8); Decl. III., 67; for istems, 62, I., 2; Decl. IV., 116; Decl. V., 120; pronouns, 184, 1. Irregular case endings, Decl. I., 49; Decl. II., 52; Decl. III., 67, N.; Decl. IV., 117; Decl. V., 121.

CASES, SYNTAX OF, 362 ff. General view 365 Nomine 266 Vecarious 1865 Nomine 266 V

view, 365. Nominat., 368. Vocat., 369. Accusat., 370 ff. Dat., 382 ff. Gen., 393 ff. Abl., 411 ff. Cases

w. preps., 432 ff.

Castrum, castra, 132. Catalectic, 603, notes 3 and 5. Causa, p. 221, foot-note 2.

Causal adverbs, 305, N. 2, 4); conjunctions, 310, 5; 311, 7; 554, V.; 555, VII. Causal clauses, 516; 517; w. quod, etc., 516; w. cum and qui,

Cause, gen. of, 399, III., 2; abl., 413; 416. Cause expressed by particip.,

549, 1.

Caveo, constr., 385, 1. Cave w. subj. for imperat., 489, 2); w. nē omitted, 499, 2. Ē in cavē, 581, IV., 3.

-ce, appended, 186, 1 and 2.

Cecidi, quant. of pen., 591, 1. Cedo, o in, 581, II., 1. Celeber, celer, decl., 153, N. 1.

Cēlō, constr., 374, 2. Celtiber, decl., 51, 4, 3); quant. of increm., 585, III., 3.

-cen, compds. in, 341, 1.

Cēnseo, constr., p. 274, foot-note 1. -ceps, genit. plur. of adjs. in, 158, 2,

3); compds, in, 342, 1. -cer, suffix, p. 155, foot-note 1. Cerès, ēs in, 581, VI., 1. Certo w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1. Certus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3,

Ceter, ceterus, defective, 159, II.; meaning, 440, N. 2. Ceterum, 310, 3; 554, III., 2. Ch, sound, 7, N.; 13, I., 2. Changes in consonants, 30 ff.

Characteristic, stem-characteristic nouns, 46, 3; verbs, 201. Gen. of characteristic, 396, V.; abl., 419, II.; 419, 2.

Chiasmus, 562; 636, V., 4. Chief caesura, p. 357, foot-note 1.

Choliambus, 622, 4.

Choosing, verbs of, w. two accs., 373; w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2). Choree, p. 350, foot-note 2.

Choriambus, 597, N. 1. -cīda, compds. in, 341, 1.

Cilix, w. short increm., p. 343, footnote 2.

Cingo, constr., 377.

-cino, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 8.

-cinus, adjs. in, 380, 1. -ciō, nouns in, 321, N.

Circa, p. 149, foot-note 2; w. acc., 433; 433, I.; of ger., p. 315, footnote 5.

Circiter w. acc., 433; 433, I.

Circum, p. 149, foot-note 2; in compds., 344, 5; compds. w. acc., 372; w. two accs., 376; w. dat., 386, 2. Circum w. acc.. 433: 386, 2 433, I.

Circumdo, circumfundo, constr., p.

198, foot-note 1.

Circumlocutions w. res, genus, modus, ratio, 636, III., 10.

Cis w. acc., 433; 433, I.; i in, 579, 3. Citerior, compar., 166.

Cities, plur. in names of, 131, N.

Cito, o in, 581, II., 1. Citra, p. 149, foot-note 2; w. acc.,

433; 433, I.

Citum, i in, 590, 1. Cīvis, decl., 62, IV.

Clam w. acc. or abl., 437, 3.

Clans, Roman, how designated, 331, N. 2.

Classical period, 640, II.

Classification of letters, 3; verbs, 257 ff.

Clāssis, decl., 62, IV.

Claudus, not compared, 169, 4.

CLAUSES, 348, N. 1; as nouns, gend., 42, N. Prin. and sub. clauses, 348, N. 2. Clause as object, 371, IV.; as abl., abs., 431, N. 1; as anteced., 445, 7. Object clauses of purp., 498. Subst. clauses of purp., 499, 3; of result, 501. Restrictive clauses w. quod, 503, I., N. 1. Conditional clauses, 513; concess., 514 ff.; temp., 518 ff.; principal, in indir. disc., 523; subord., 524. Indirect clauses, 528 ff. Substantive clauses, 532 ff.; Relat. clauses supplied by particip., 549, 4. Prin. clauses supplied by particip., 549, 5. Arrang.

of clauses, 570 ff Clāvis, decl., 62, III. Cliens, decl., 64. Climax, 637, VI.

Close vowels, 3, I., 3.

Clothing, constr. w. verbs of, 377.

-**co**, suffix, 320, II. Cognate acc., 371, I. and II.

Cognomen, 649. Cōgō, constr., 380, N.; p. 274, foot-

note 2 Coins, Roman, 646, -cola, compds. in, 341, 1.

Collecting, constr. w. verbs of, 380, N. Collective nouns, 39, 2, 1); w. plur. verb, 461, 1.

Collis, decl., 62, IV.

Collocō, constr., 380, N. Colus, gend., 53, 1; 118; decl., 119, 2. Com in compds., 344, 5; w. dat., 386. Coming together, constr. w. verbs of,

380, N. Comitium, comitia, 132.

Command, dat. w. verbs signifying to, 385, I.; infin. after, 535, II. Subj. of command, 483 ff.

Commiserescit, commiseretur, constr., 410, IV., N. 1.

Common nouns, 39, 2. Common quan-

tity, 16, III.; 575.

Communis w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3.

Commūto, constr., 422, N. 2.

Comparative conjuncs., 311, 2; 555, Comparat. degree, 160; decl., 154; wanting, 167; formed by magis, 170. Comparat. w. gen., 397, 3; w. abl., 417; w. quam, 417, 1. Use, 444. Comparat. w. quam and subj., 503, II., 3. O in increm. of comparat., 585, II., 1.

Comparative view of conjugations,

213 ff.

Comparison of adjs., 160 ff.; modes of, 161; terminational, 162; irreg., 163; defect., 166; adverbial, 170; of adverbs, 306. Use of compar., 444. Dat. w. verbs of comparison, 385, 4, 3).

Compes, decl., p. 36, foot-note 4. Compleō, constr., 410, V., 1; p. 225,

foot-note 3.

Complex sentences, 348; elements, 357, 2; subject, 359; predicate, 361. Complures, decl., 154, N. 1.

Compos w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; -os in, 581, VII., 1; quant. of in-crem., 585, II., 3.

Composition of words, 340 ff.

COMPOUND WORDS, 313, N. 2; pronunciation, 8, 3; p. 8, foot-note 1; 18, 2. Compd. nouns, decl., 125 ff. Compd. interrog., 188, 3; nouns, 341; 343; adjs., 342; 343; verbs, 221; 344. Compd. sentences, 349. Compds. of preps. w. acc., 372; w. two accs., 376; w. dat., 386. Quant. in compds., 594. Compd. verse, 601, N. 2.

Computation of money, 647.

Concealing, verbs of, w. two accs., 374. Concession expressed by particip., 549, 2.

Concessive conjunctions, 311, 4; 555, IV.; concess. subj. of desire, 484, III. Concess. clauses, 514 ff.: posi-Concess. clauses, 514 ff.; position of, 572, II., N.

Condemning, constr. w. verbs of, 410, III.

Condīcō w. gen., 409, N. 3.

Condition expressed by imperat., 487.

3; by particip., 549, 2.

CONDITIONAL conjuncs., 311, 3; 555, III. Cond. sentences, 506 ff.; first form, 508; sec. form, 509; third form, 510; combined forms, 511; Condit. clauses w. dum, etc., Condit. sentences in indir. disc., 527. Position of condit. clauses, 572, II., N.

Confido w. abl., 425, 1, 1), N.

Conitor, constr., p. 202, foot-note 1. Conjugation, 201 ff.; of sum, 204. First conj., 205 ff.; 223 ff.; 257 ff.; second, 207 ff.; 225 ff.; 261 ff.; ¿, in imperat., 581, IV., 3; third, 209 ff.; 227 ff.; 269 ff.; fourth, 211 ff.; 229 ff.; 284 ff.; is in pres. indic., 581, VIII., 3; verbs in io of Conj. III., 217. Periphrastic, 233 ff. Peculiarities, 235 ff. Comparative view, 213. Irreg. verbs, 289 ff.; defect., 297 ff.; impers., 298 ff. In-

crem. of conj., 583; 584; quant., 586. Conjunctions, 309; coörd., 554; subord., 555. Conj. omitted, 554, I., 6. Place of conj. in sentence, 569, III.

Conor, constr., 498, II., N. 1. Conscius w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2; other constrs., 400. Conscius mihi sum w. infin.,

535, I., 3. Consecutive conjs., 311, 6; 555, VI. Consequor, constr., p. 274, foot-note 2. Consimilis w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3. Consonant nouns, 55 ff. Consonant

stems, 57 ff. Consonant verbs, 209. Consonants, 3, II.; double, 3, N. 2; sounds of, 7; 13; 15, 2; phonetic changes in, 30 ff.; interchanged w. vowels, 28; 29; assimilated, 33; 34; dissimilated, 35; omitted, 36.

Consors w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Constituo, constr., 498, I., N.; p. 274, foot-note 1.

Cōnstō w. abl., p. 226, foot-note 1. Cōnsul, decl., 60. Cōnsulō, constr., 374, 2; 385, 1. Cōnsultus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Contendo w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1; w. infin., 498, II., N. 1; w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 2.

Contention, dat. w. verbs of, 385, 4, 3).

Contentus w. abl., 420, 1, 4); 421, III. Continental pronunciation of Latin,

Contingit, constr., p. 276, foot-note 2. Continuing, constr. w. verbs of, 533,

Contrā, p. 149, foot-note 2; w. acc., 433; 433, I. Contraction of vowels, 23; in conjugation, 235. Quant. of syllables in contract., 576, I.

Contrārius w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3.

Contrō- in compds., 594, 8. Convenio, constr., 380, N.

Convicting, constr. w. verbs of, 409, II.; 410, II.

Convoco, constr., 380, N.

Coördinate conjs., 309, 1; 554. Cōpia, cōpiae, 132. fin., 533, 3, N. 3. Copia est w. in-

Copulative conjs., 310, 1; 554, I. *Copulo* w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1. *Cor*, defective, 133, 5; o in, 579, 3.

Coram, p. 149, foot-note 2; w. abl., 434.

Cornū, decl., 116.

Corōnīdēs, ī in, p. 345, foot-note 3.

Corpus, decl., 61.

Correlative pronouns, 191; adverbs, 305. Correlat. compar. conjunes., 555, II., 1. Position of correlat. clauses, 572, II., N.

Cōs, defective, 133, 5. -cōsus, adjs. in, 328. Cotīdiē, locat., 120, N.

Countries, names of, gend., 42, II., 2; constr., 380, 3.

Crēdor, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2). Crīmine, constr., 410, II., 1.

-crum, suffix, p. 155, foot-note 1; nouns in, 327.

Cubitus, 648, IV., N. Cuicuimodī, 187, 4. Cūjās, cūjus, 185, N. 3.

Cūjusmodī, cūjuscumquemodī, 187, 4,

-cula, nouns in, 321; u in, 587, II., 3. -culo, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 8.

-culum, suffix, p. 155, foot-note 1; nouns in, 321; 327; cu in, 587, II., 3.

-culus, nouns m, ozi, v in pen, 587, II., 3.
Cum, prep, p. 149, foot-note 2; appended, 184, 6; 187, 2; com in 344, 5. Cum w. abl., 434; 434, I.; of accompaniment, 419; of manner, 419, III.; after idem, 451, 5; w. pl. verb, 461, 4. Cum w. ger., p. 216, foot-note 1. Cum, quum, p. 75, foot-note 1; 305,

IV.; 311, 1 and 4; p. 151, footnotes 1 and 4; 311, 7; w. perf. indic., 471, 5; w. plup. indic., 472, 2; introducing a condition, 507, 3; a concession, 515, III.; 515, N. 4; a causal clause, 517; a temp. clause, Cum w. infinit., 524, 1, 2). Cum-tum, 554, I., 5.

-cumque, p. 75, foot-note 3; 305, N. 1.

Cumulō, constr., p. 225, foot-note 3. Cūnctī w. part. gen., 397, 3, N. 4.

-cundus, verbals in, 333.

Cupidus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2. Cupiens w. dat. of possessor, 387,

Cupio, constr., p. 310, foot-note 1. Cūra est w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 3. Cūrō, constr., p. 274, foot-note 2.

-cus, adjs. in, 330; 333, 5. Cyclic daetyl, 598, 1, 3); anapaest, 598, 1, 4). Cyclops, quant. of increm., 585, II., 2.

D for t, 32, N. 1. D changed to l, 32; assimilated to n or s, 34, 1; to l, 34, 2; dropped before s, 36, 2. D final dropped, 36, 5, 2). Quant. of final syllables in d, 579, 2; 580, Π .

-d, -da, nouns in, 322. Daetyl, 597, I.; eyelie, 598, 1, 3). Effect of dactyls, 610, 2.

Dactylic verse, 603, N. 1; 614 ff.; hexameter, 609 ff.

Dāmma, gend., 48, 5. Danais, quant. of pen., p. 345, footnote 1.

Danger, constr. w. expressions of, 498, Ш.

Daps, dapis, defective, 133, 3. Dare litteras, 385, 1, N. Do Dare operam w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 2. E in $ded\bar{\imath}$, a in datum, 590, 1.

Daring, constr. w. verbs of, 533, I., 1. Dates, Eng. and Lat., 644.

DATIVE, Decl. I., 49, 4; Decl. III., 58, 2; 66, 2; 67, N. 1; 68, 5; Decl. IV., 117, 1; Decl. V., 121, 1.

DATIVE, Syntax of, 382 ff. Dat. for

acc., 386, 4. Dat. in exclamations, 381, N. 3, 3); w. verbs, 384 ff.; w. compds., 386; of possessor, 387; of agent, 388. Ethical dat., 389. Two dats., 390. Dat. w. adjs., 391; 399, I. 3 N. 1. 400, I. w. poups and I., 3, N. 1; 400, 1; w. nouns and adverbs, 392; w. refert and interest, 408, I., 3. Dat. of penalty, 410, III.,

rundive, 544, 2.

Dative sing. in *i*, 581, I., 2. dat., Decl. III., 581, IV., 2. Daughter, apparent ellipsis of, 398, I., N. 2. Names of daughters, 649, 4. Day, Rom. division of, 645. De in compds. w. dat., 386; w. abl., 434, N. 1. Dē w. abl., 434; 434, I.; for genit., 397, N. 3. Dē w. ger., p. 316, foot-note 1. Dea, decl., 49, 4. Dēbeō w. pres. infin., 537, 1. Decay, phonetic, p. 12, foot-note 1. Dēcernō, constr., 498, I., N.; p. 274, foot-note 1. Decipio, constr., p. 217, foot-note 5. Declarative sentence, 350; in indir. disc., 523, I. Declaring, constr. w. verbs of, 535, I. Declension, 46; first, 48; sec., 51; third, 55; fourth, 116; see, and fourth, 119; fifth, 120; compds., 125. -O in Deel. III., 581, II., 2. -E in Deel. I. and V., 581, IV., 1. Increm. of decl., 582; 584; quant., 585. Dēdoceō, constr., 374, 2. Defective nouns, 122; 127, II.; 129 ff.; adjs., 159, II. Def. compar., 166 ff. Def. verbs, 297. Degree, adverbs of, 305, N. 2, 3). Degrees of comparison, 160. Deinde, in series, 554, I., N. 2. Delecto, constr., 385, II., N. 1. Deliberative subj., 484, V. questions, 523, II., 1, N. Delib. Delos, decl., 54. Delphin, quant. of increm., 585, IV., 3. Demanding, constr. w. verbs of, 374. Demonstrative pronouns, 186; use of, 450 ff.; 449, 1. Demon. roots, 314, II. Demon. adverbs, 450, N. 4. Demon. w. infin., 538, 3. Position of demon., 569, I. Demon. redundant, 636, III., 7. Denarius, 646. Denique, in series, 554, I., N. 2. Denominatives, 335. Dental stems, Decl. III., 58. Dentals, 3, II.; 3, N. 1, I., 2. Dependent clauses, 348, N. 2. Depend, questions, 528, 2, N. 2. Dependent verbs, 195, 2; 281; 465, 2. Depriving, constr. w. verbs of, 414, I. Derivation, 321 ff.; of nouns, 321 ff.; adjs., 328 ff.; verbs, 335 ff. Derivatives, quant. in, 593. -dēs, nouns in, 322. Descent, names of, 322,

N. 1. Dat. of ger., 542, II.; ge-

H., N. Descrip, imperf. in temp. clauses, 518, N. 1.
Desideratives, 284, 2; 338.
Desino, constr., p. 217, foot-note 5.
Desino, subj. of 482 ff. for imported Desire, subj. of, 483 ff.; for imperat., 487, 4. Desiring, gen. w. adjs. of, 399, I., 1; p. 315, foot-note 2; w. verbs of, 410,
V., 2. Subj. after verbs of, 498, I.; infinit., 533, I., 1; 535, II. Desistō, constr., p. 217, foot-note 5. Desperō w. acc., 371, III., N. 1; w. dat. or acc., p. 202, foot-note 1. Destitute of, constr. w. adjs. signifying, 414, III. Dēsum, synaeresis in, 608, III., N. 1. Desuper w. acc., 437, 1. Deterior, comparison, 166. Deterius, comparison, 306, 3. Determinative compds., 343, I. Determining, constr. w. verbs of, 533, Dēterreō, constr., p. 279, foot-note 2. Deus, decl., 51, 6. -dex, compds. in, 341, 1.

Dexter, decl., 150, N. 1); dextrā, constr., 425, 2. Dī, dis, insep. prep., 308; in compds., 344, 6; \bar{i} in $d\bar{i}$, 594, 2. Diaeresis, 602, 2; 608, IV. Diāna, i in, 577, I., 3, (4). Diastole, 608, V. Dic for dice, 238. *Dicio*, defective, 134. Dicolon, p. 352, foot-note 3. Dicor, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2). Dictō audiens, 390, N. 3. -dicus, compds. in, 342, 1; compar., 164. $D\bar{\imath}d\bar{o}$, decl., 68. Dies, decl., 120; 122, 1; gend., 123; i in compds., 594, 7. Difference, abl. of, 417, 2; 423. Differing, dat. w. verbs of, 385, 2; Differō w. dat., p. 200, foot-note 2. Difficilis, compar., 163, 2; w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1; w. supine, 547, 1. Dīgnor, constr., 421, N. 2. Dignus, constr., 421, III.; 421, N. 3. Dīgnus quī w. subj., 503, II., 2. Dignus w. supine, 547, 1. Diiambus, 597, N. 1. Dimeter, 603, N. 2. Diminutive nouns, 321; adjs., 332; verbs, 339. Diphthongs, 4; sounds of, 6; 12; 15, 1; weakening of, 23, N.; quant. of syllab, w. diphth., 576, I.; final

Descriptive genit., 396, V.; abl., 419,

diphth. elided, 608, I.; shortened in hiatus, 608, II., N. 3.

Dipody, 597, N. 2.

DIRECT object, 370 ff. Direct disc., 522, 1; changed to indir., 530; indir. to direct, 531.

Directing, constr. w. verbs of, 499, 2. Direction, how expressed, 384, 3, 1);

385, 4, 1); 386, 3. Dirimō, di in, 594, 2, N. 1.

Dis, quant. of increm., 585, IV., 2. $Dis, d\bar{\imath}, \text{ insep. prep., 308}; \text{ in compds.,}$ 344, 6.

Disertus, di in, 594, 2, N. 1.

Disjunctive conjunctions, 310, 2; 554, Disjunct. questions, 353.

Dispar, constr., p. 205, foot-notes 1 and 3.

Displeasing, verbs of, w. dat., 385, I.

Dispondec, 597, N. 1. Dissenting, verbs of, w. dat., 385, 2. Dissentiō, dissideō, w. dat., p. 200,

foot-note 2. Dissimilation of vowels, 26; conso-

nants, 35.

Dissimilis, compar., 163, 2; constr., p. 205, foot-notes 1, 2, and 3.

perfects and supines, Dissyllabic quant. of pen., 590. Distance, abl. of, 379, 2; 423, N. 2.

Distich, 606, N.; elegiac, 615. *Dīstō* w. dat., p. 200, foot-note 2.

Distributives, 172, 8; 174; decl., 179.

Ditrochee, 597, N. 1.

Diū, 304, I., 1; compar., 306, 4. Dius, i in, 577, I., 3, (2).

Diūturnus, superl. wanting, 168, 3. Diversus, compar., 167, 2; w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1.

Dives, compar., 165, N. 2.

-dŏ, nouns in, 327, 4, N.; decl., 60, 4. Dō w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2). See also Dare. Quant. of increm. of do. 586, I.

Doceō, constr., 374, 2. Doleō w. acc., 371, III., N. 1; w. abl., p. 221, foot-note 2; w. infin., p. 310, foot-note 2.

Domus, gend., 118; decl., 119, 1; constr., 380, 2, 1); 412, II., 1; 425, 2. Donec, 311, 1; in temp. clauses, 519.

Dōnō, constr., p. 198, foot-note 1; w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2).
Double consonants, 3, N. 2. Double constr. w. verbs, 384, 2. Double

questions, 353.

Dropping of vowels, 27; consonants,

Dry measure, Rom., 648, II. Dt changed to st, ss, or s, 35, 3. Dual number, p. 68, foot-note 1. Dubitō, constr., 505, I.

 $D\bar{u}c$ for $d\bar{u}ce$, 238. Dūcō w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2.

Duim for dem, 240, 3. Dum, p. 145, foot-note 1; 311, 1 and 3; 555, I., 1; w. pres. indic., 467, 4; w. subj. in conditions, 513, I. Dum in temp. clauses, 519; in indir. clauses, 529, II., N. 2.

Dummodo, 311, 3; w. subj. in con-

ditions, 513, I.

Duo, decl., 175; o in, 581, II., 1.Duration of time, 379.

-dus, adjs. in, 333.

Dv changed to b, v, or d, 32, N. 2.

E, \bar{e} , sound, 5; 10 ff. \bar{E} final short-, e, sound, 5; 10 ff. E infal short-ened, 21, 2, 3). Nouns in 3, Decl. I., 50; in e, Decl. III., 63; 65, 2; 70. E, gend. of nouns in, Decl. III., 111. -E in abl., 62. -E in plur. of Greek neuters, 68, 6. E-nouns, 120. E-verbs, 207. E-stems, 120, 120. E-Verbs, 207. E-stems, 120, 1. -E. -e, in adverbs, 304, I., 3; 304, II., 2; 304, III., 1. -E, -e, suffix, 320, II. E changed to i, 344, 4, N. 1. E or ēin ēī, 120, 2; 577, I., 2, (1); 585, III., 1. E or ē, final, 580, I.; 580, III., N. 2; 581, IV.; in increm. of deel., 585; 585, III.; conj., 586; 586, II. E elided before consonant. 608, I., N. 2. fore consonant, 608, I., N. 2.

 $ar{E}$ or ex, see ex.

 $E\bar{a}$, 304, II., 3; 305, V. - $\bar{e}a$ in prop. names, \bar{e} in, 577, I., 5, N. Eabus for $\tilde{eis} = iis$, p. 73, foot-note 2. Eadem, 304, II., 3; 305, V.

Easy, dat. w. adjs. signifying, 391, I. Ecastor, interj., p. 152, foot-note 4. Ecce, 312, 1; with demonstratives, 186, 3; with dat. in exclamations, 381, N. 3, 3).

Ecquis, 188, 3. Ecquid, p. 180, footnote 1.

Ecthlipsis, 604, I., N. 4. Edim for edam, 240, 3.

-ēdō, nouns in, 325; ē in, 587, I., 2. Ēdoceō, constr., 374, 2.

Ee in synaeresis, 608, III., N. 1.

Effect, acc. of, 371, I., 2, 2). Effició, constr., p. 274, foot-note 2; 501, II., 1.

Effigies, decl., 122, 2. Effort, subj. w. verbs of, 498, II.

Egēnus, compared, 164, 1; w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 219, footnote 4.

Egeō, constr., 410, V., 1. Ego, decl., 184. \bar{I} in $mih\tilde{i}$, 581, I., 2. O in ego, 581, II., 1. Ehem, interj., 312, 1.
Eheu, interj., 312, 3; w. acc., 381, N.
2; è in, 577, I., 2, (8).
Eho, ehodum, 312, 5; o in, 581, II., 1. Ei, interj., 312, 3; w. dat., 381, N. 3, Ei, pronunciation as diphthong, 6, 1; 12, 1; ē or e in ēī, 120, 2; 577, I., 2, (1); 585, III., 1. Ei in synaeresis, 608, III., N. 1. -ēis, ē in, 587, I., 3. -ēius, ē in, 577, I., 2, (2). E_{ja} , 312, 2 and 6; a in, 581, III., 3. $E_{jusmod\bar{\imath}}$, 186, 4, N. -ēla, ē in, 587, I., 4. Elegiac Distich, 615. Elements of sentences, 356 ff. -ēlis, ē in, 587, I., 4. Elision, 608, I. -ella, nouns in, 321, 4. Ellam for en illam, 186, 3. Ellipsis, 636, I. elium, nouns in, 321, 4. Ellum for en illum, 186, 3. -ellus in nouns, 321, 4; adjs., 332, N. 1. Eluvies, defective, 122, 3. -em in acc., 62. Emotion, constr. w. verbs of, 371, III.; 410, V., 2; 535, III. Emphasis in arrang. of words, 561. Emphatic forms of pronouns, 184, 3 185, N. 2. Em phrases, 305, N. 4. Emphatic adverbial En, 312, 1; w. demonstratives, 186, 3; in exclamations, 381, N. 3, 3). -en, suffix, 320, II.; nouns in, 327. Quant. of increm. of nouns in -ēn, 585, III., 2. -ena, ē in, 587, I., 5. Enallage, 636, IV. Enclitics, accent, 18, 2, 1); quant., 579, I., 1. End, dat. of, 384, 1, 3). End of sentence emphatic, 561, II. Endeavoring, constr. w. verbs of, 498, II., N. 1. Ending, constr. w. verbs of, 533, I., 1. Endings of genitive, 47; of cases, Decl. I., 48; 49; Decl. II., 51, 2, 3); 52; Decl. III., 62, I., 2; 67; Decl. IV., 116; 117; Decl. V., 120;

121; in compar., 162; conj., 213-

English pronunciation of Latin, 9 ff.

216.

Endo, o in, 581, II., 1.

-**ēnī**, ē in, 587, I., 8.

Enim, 310, 5; 554, V., 3; position, 569, III. Enitor, constr., p. 274, foot-note 2. Enneasyllabic verse, 619, 1. -ensis, adjs. in, 330; 331. -ent, suffix, 320, II. -entia, -entio, suffixes, p. 155, footnote 9. -entior, -entissimus, in compar., 164. **-ento**, suffix, p. 155, foot-note 9. Enumerative asyndeton, p. 370, footnote 1. -**ēnus**, ē in, 587, I., 5. Eō, īre, w. sup. in -um, 546, 2; īrī w. do., 546, 3. I in ībam, ībō, etc., 586, III., 4. I in itum, 590, 1. Eō, adverb, 304, II., 3, N.; 305, II.; 554, IV., 1; w. gen., p. 209, footnote 3. $E\bar{o}dem,~305,~{
m II}.$ Epenthesis, 635, 4. Ephesus, decl., 51, 8. Epicene nouns, 43, 3. Epiphora, 636, III., 4. Epitomē, deel., 50. Epizeuxis, 636, III., 5. -eps, decl. of nouns in, 88. Epulum, epulae, 143, 3. Equester, decl., 153, N. 1. Equivalents, metrical, 598. er, nouns in, gend, 53; 99; 103; decl., 51, 4; 60, 8; adjs. in, decl., 62, IV., N. 1; 150, N.; 153, N. 2; compar, 163, 1. Quant. of increm. of nouns in -2r, 585, III., 4. -ēre for ērunt, 236. Ergā, p. 149, foot-note 2; w. acc., 433; 433, I.; after adjs., 391, II., 1; for gen., 396, III., N. 1.
Ergō, 310, 4; p. 151, foot-note 1; w.

gen., 398, 5.

-erunt for -erunt, 236, N.; 586, II., 4.

£s attached to preceding word, 27, N.;

ɛ in, 579, 3; in compds., 581, VI., 2.

-es, -ēs, suffixes, 320, II. Nouns in

-ēs, 327; decl., 65, 1; 80; 120;
quant. of increm., 585, III., 4;
gend., 99; 104; 105; 109; 120.

Decl. of nouns in -es, 81; gend.,
99; 104. £s or -ēs final, 580, III.;
581, VI. Ā in voc. of Greek nouns
in -ēs, p. 341, foot-note 1.

-ēsimus, ē in, 587, III., 3.

Esse omitted, 534, N.

Essential elements of sentences, 357, 1.

-ēssō, -ēssim, in fut. perf. and

perf. subj., 240, 4. -essō, verbs in, 336, N. 2. Est drops initial, 27, N. Est ut, 498, II., N. 2. Est, impers., constr., p. 276, foot-note 2. Est at end of line, 613, N. 3.

-ester, -estris, adjs. in, 330, 1. Et, 310, 1; 554, I.; meaning as, 451, 5; than, 459, 2. Et-et, et-que, que—et, neque (nec)—et, et—neque (nec), 554, I., 5. Et in poetry, position, 569, III., N. Preps. repeated w. et—et, 636, III., 6.

-ēt in Plautus for -et, 580, III., N. 2. -ēta, ē in, 587, I., 7.

-etās, e in, 587, II., 4. Etenim, 310, 5; 554, V., 2.

Ethical dat., 389.

Etiam, 310, 1; 554, I., 2, 4, and 5.

Etiams; ets; 311, 4; in concessions, 515, II. Ets; = 'yet,' etc., 515, N. 2.

-Etum, nouns in, 323; \(\beta\) in, 587, I., 7.

-ētus, ē in, 587, I., 7. Etymology, 37-344. Figures of ety-

mol., 634, N.; 635. Eu, sound, 6, 1; 12.

Euge, interj., 312, 2 and 6.

Euhoe, interj., 312, 2. Euphemism, 637, XI., 4.

Euphony in arrang. of words, 561. -eus, adjs. in, 329; -eus, 331. -Eus in prop. nouns, ē in, 577, 5, N.

Evenit, constr., p. 276, foot-note 2. Evoe, interj., 312, 2.

Ex, & in compds., 344, 5; w. dat., 386, 2; w. abl., 434, N. 1. Ex w. abl. for part. gen., 397, N. 3. Ex, ē, w. abl., 434; 434, I. *E*, ex, 434, N. 2. *Ex*, ē, w. ger., p. 316, foot-

note 1. -ex, -ex, decl. of nouns in, 92; 93.

Compds. in -ex, 341, 1. Exadversum, exadversus, w. acc., 433.

Exanimus, éxanimis, 159, III. Exchanging, constr. w. verbs of, 422,

N. 2. Exclamatory sentences, 355; acc. in, 381; voc., nom., dat. in, 381, N. 3;

infin. in, 539, III. Existimō, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2).

Exonerō, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Exos, -os in, 581, VII., 1. Expediō, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Expers w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Explicative asyndeton, p. 370, footnote 1.

Exposco w. two accs., 374, 2. Exsequias, acc. of limit, 380, 2, 3). Exsolvō, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1.
Exsors w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.
Extemplō, 304, II., 1, N.
Extent of space, acc. of, 379.
Externel object, 371, I. 1

External object, 871, I., 1.

Exterus, compar., 163, 3. Extrā, p. 149, foot-note 2; w. acc., 433; 433, I.

Extremus, meaning, 440, N. 2. Exuō, constr., 377; p. 198, foot-note 1; p. 219, foot-note 1.

Fac for face, 238. Fac ne w. subj. in prohibitions, 489, 2). A in fac, 579, 3.

Facies, decl., 122, 2.

Facilis, compar., 163, 2; w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1; w. supine, 547, 1. Faciō, accent of compds., 18, 2, 2). Faciō omitted, 368, 3, N. 1. Faciō w. dat., 385, 3; w. pred. gen., 403; w. abl., 415, III., N. 1. Faciō ut, 498, II., N. 2. Faciō w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 2; 499, 2; 501, II., 1. E before f in compas. 594, 6 E before f in compds., 594, 6.

-factō, verbs in, 344, 3. Facultās, facultātēs, 132. Falsus, compar., 167, 2.

Fāma fert w. infin., 535, I., 3. Famēs, abl. famē, 137, 2.

Familia, genitive, 49, 1. constr., 415, II., N. Familiā.

Fār, decl., 63, 2, N.; 133, N. Fās, defect., 134; w. supine, 547, 1. Fastīdiōsus w. gen., p. 210, foot-

Faux, decl., p. 38, foot-note 4.

Favorite vowel, 24. Fax, quant. of increm., 585, I., 4, (3). Faxō, faxim, for fecero, fecerim, 240, 4. Fearing, constr. w. verbs of, 498, III.

Febris, decl., 62, III.

Feeling, constr. w. verbs of, 371, III.; 410, V., 2; 535, III. Feet in versification, 597. Fel, defective, 133, 4, N.

Felix, decl., 156. Feminine, 42, II. Fem. caesura, 611, N.

Fer for fere, 238; e in, 579, 3. -fer, compds. in, 342, 1; decl., 51, 4, 2); adjs. in, 150, 3), N.
Ferē, fermē, ē in, 581, IV., 4.

Fero and compds., increm. of, 586, 1. Feror, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2).

Fertilis w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Ferus, not compared, 169, 4.

Festivals, plur. in names of, explained,

131, N.; plur. in -ālia, decl., 136, 3.
-fex, compds. in, 341, 1.
-ficō, verbs in, 344, 3.
-ficus, adjs. in, 342, 1; compar., 164.
Fidelis w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1.
Fidi, i in, 590, 1.

 $Fid\bar{o}$ w. abl., 425, 1, 1), N. Fifth decl., 120 ff.; \bar{e} final in, 581, IV., 1. Figures of prosody, 608. Fig. of speech, 634 ff.; of etymology, 634, N.; 635; of syntax, 634, N.; 636; of rhetoric, 634, N.; 637. Fīlia, decl., 49, 4. Filix w. short increm., p. 243, footnote 2.

Filling, constr. w. verbs of, p. 225, foot-note 3.

Final conjunctions, 311, 5; 555, V. Final vowels and syllables, quant. of, 580; 581. Fin. syl. of verse, 605. Fin. syl. elided, 608, I. Fin. long vowel or diphthong shortened in

hiatus, 608, II., N. 3. Finis, decl., 62, IV.; singular and plur., 132.

Finite verb, 199, N.

Finitimus, constr., p. 205, foot-notes 1 and 3.

Fiv w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 1); w. abl., 415, III., N. 1. Fit, constr., p. 276, foot-note 2. I or i in fiv, 577, I., 3, (1). E before f in compds., 594, 6.

First decl., 48 ff.; ē final in, 581, IV., 1. First conjugat., 205 ff.; 223 ff.; 257 ff. Flagito w. two aces., 374, 2.

Flocci, constr., p. 213, foot-note 3.

 $Fl\bar{o}s$, decl., 61.

Following, constr. w. verbs of, 501,

Foot, caesura of, p. 357, foot-note 1. Roman foot, 648, IV.

'For,' how translated, 384, 3. Forās, 304, I., 1.

Fore ut, 537, 3.

Foreign words indeel., 128, 2.

Forgetting, constr. w. verbs of, 407. For s, $\bar{\imath}$ in, 581, VIII., 1. Formation of stems of verbs, 249 ff.;

of words, 313 ff.; of nouns, 321 ff. Fornix w. short increm., p. 343, footnote 2.

Fors, defective, 134. Forsitan, 304, IV., N. 2; w. subj., p.

267, foot-note 1. Fortuitus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 2.

Fortūna, fortūnae, 132. Fourth decl., 116 ff. Fourth conjugat.,

211 ff.; 229 ff.; 284 ff. Fractions, 174, 1.

Fraudō, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Fraus, decl., p. 38, foot-note 4. Free from, constr. w. adjs. signify-ing, 414, III.

Frēnum, pl. frēnī, frēna, 143, 2.

Frequentatives, 336.

Fretus w. abl., 425, 1, 1), N. Fricatives, 3, II., 4.

Friendly, constr. w. adjs. signifying, 391, I. and II.

Frūctus, decl., 116. Frūgī, indeclin., 159, I.; compar., 165, N. 2.

Fruor, constr., 421, I.; 421, N. 4; gerundive of, 544, 2, N. 5. Frux, defective, 133, 3; quant. of increm., 535, V., 2.

Fuam for sim, 204, 2.

Fulness, adjs. of, w. gen., 399, I., 3. Fungor, constr., 421, I.; 421, N. 4; gerundive of, 544, 2, N. 5.

Fur, quant. of increm., 585, V., 2. Furnishing, constr. w. verbs of, p. 225, foot-note 3.

FUTURE, 197; 222. Fut. indic., 470; for imperat., 487, 4. Fut. in condit., 511, 1, N. 1; in temp. clauses, p. 293, foot-note 2. Fut. in subj.,

293, 1001-1002 Z. Fut. in Sug., 479; 481; 496. Fut. imperat., 487, 2. Fut. infin., 537; periphrast., 537, 3. Fut. particip., 550. FUTURE PERFECT, 197, II.; 222, II.; 473; in subj., 496; in indir. disc., 525, 2; in infinit., 537, 3, N. 2. -Is in fut. perf., 581, VIII., 5. Futurum esse ut, 537, 3. Futurum sit. esset. ut. p. 272, foot-note 2.

sit, esset, ut, p. 272, foot-note 2.

G formed from C, 2, 2; sound, 7; 13; changed to c, 33, 1; assimilated to m, 34, 3; dropped, 36, 3.

Gaudeo, constr., p. 221, foot-note 2; p. 310, foot-note 2.

 $G\bar{a}v\bar{\imath}sus$, $\bar{\imath}$ in, 586, III., 2 Gemō w. acc., 371, III., N.

Gems, gend. of names of, 53, 1. Gender, 41 ff.; Decl. I., 48; Decl. II., 53; Decl. III., 99-115; Decl. IV., 118. Decl. V., 123; general table, 124.

Gener, decl., 51, 4, 3). General relatives, p. 75, foot-note 3. Gen. rel. adverbs, 305, N. 1. Gen. subject, 460, 1, N. 2. Gen. truths, 467, II.; in conditions, 508, 5; 511, 1. Gen. negat., 553, 1 and 2.

Genere, constr., 415, II., N. GENITIVE, endings of, 47; Decl. I., ās

for ae, um for arum, 49; Decl. II., \bar{i} for $i\bar{i}$, 51, 5; $\bar{u}m$ for $\bar{o}rum$, 52, 3; $\bar{o}n$ for $\bar{o}rum$, 54, N. 1; Decl. III., um or ium, p. 36, foot-notes 3 and 4; p. 38, foot-note 2; p. 40, footnote 3; yos, ys, 68, 2; on, 68, 4;

Decl. IV., uis, uos, for ūs, 117; Decl. V., i, ēī, ēs, for čī, 121. Gen. in adjs., 158, 2. - Us in gen., 581,

IX., 2.

Genitive, syntax, 393 ff.; how rendered, 393, N. Gen. w. possessives, 363, 4, 1); w. nouns, 395; varieties, 396; in special constructions, 398; 406 ff.; w. adjs., 391, II., 4; 399; w. verbs, 401 ff. Pred. gen., 401 ff.; of price, 404; 405. and gen., 409. Gen. w. adverbs, 397, 4. Gen. of ger., 542, I. Position of gen. w. adj., 565, 2; between prep. and case, 569, 11., 3.

Genitus w. abl., 415, II. Gentes, Roman, how designated, 331,

N. 2. Gentile nouns, 331, N. 1.

Genus, circumlocutions w., 636, III.,

-ger, compds. in, 342, 1; decl., 51,

4, 2); adjs., 150, N. GERUND, 200, II.; endings, 248. Gerund in sequence of tenses, 495, IV. Syntax of gerund, 541; 542. w. pass. meaning, 541, N.

w. pass. meaning, 941, N. Cases of ger., 542, Ger. w. gen., mei, etc., 542, I., N. 1; denoting purpose, 542, I., N. 2; 542, III., N. 2. Gerundive, 200, IV.; syntax, 543. Gerund. constr., 543, N.; 544; denoting purpose, 544, 2, N. 2; w. official names, 544, 2, N. 3; after comparat., 544, 2, N. 4. comparat., 544, 2, N. 4.

Gignö w. genuī, genitum, 592, 2. Giving, verbs of, w. two dats., 390,

N. 1, 2).

Glacies, decl., 122, 3.
Glis, decl., p. 38, foot-note 4; quant.
of increm., 585, IV., 2.
Glyconic verse, 604, N. 1; 628, III.
and VII.; 631, IV.-VI.

Gn lengthens preceding vowel, 16, N. 2.

Gnārus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2.

Gnomic perfect, 471, 5.

-gō, decl. of nouns in, 60, 4. Going, verbs of, w. two dats., 390, N.

Golden age, 640, II., 1. Gracilis, compar., 163, 2. Grātia, grātiae, 132.

Grātīs, i in, 581, VIII., 1. Grātuitus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 2.

Grātus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Graviter fero, constr., p. 310, footnote 2.

Greater Ionic, 597, N. 1; Archilochian, 628, X.; 616, N.; 619, N.;

Asclepiadean, 628, V.; Sapphic, 628, VII.; Alcaic, 628, IX.

GREEK NOUNS, Decl. I., 50; Decl. II., 54; Decl. III., 68. Long vowels in Greek nouns, 577, 5. 7, \$\delta\$, in dat. and voc., 581, I., 2. -\delta\$ in voc., 581, III., 2. -\delta\$ in plur, 581, IV., 1. -\delta\$ in acc, 581, V., 2. -\delta\$ in Greek words, 581, VI., 3; -\delta\$, 581, VII., 2; -\delta\$, 581, X., 3. \delta\$ in increm. of nouns in \$\alpha\$ and \$\alpha\$, 585, increm. of nouns in a and as, 585, I., 3. O in increm., 585, II., 5; è in words in -èn, 585, III., 2; in -ès and -èr, 585, III., 4. Quant. of increm. of words in -ax, 585, I., 4, (3).

I in increm., 585, IV., 3.

Grimm's law, 638, N. 2.

Grus, decl., 66, 2. $Gr\bar{y}ps$, decl., p. 38, foot-note 3. Guilt, adjs. of, w. genit., 399, I., 3. Gutturals, 3, II.; before s, 30. Guttural stems, 59.

H changed to c, 33, 1, N. 1; following other consonants, does not lengthen preceding syllable, 576, 1, N. 1. Syllable before h short, 577.

Habeo, meaning, p. 202, foot-note 3; w. two accs., 373, 1, N. 1; w. perf. part., 388, 1, N.; w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2).

Hāc, 304, II., 3; 305, V. Hadria, gend., 48, 5.

Haec for hae, p. 72, foot-note 7. Halitus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 2.

Happening, constr. w. verbs of, 501, I., 1.

Haud, use, 552.

Hēja, interj., 312, 6; a in, 581, III., 3. Hem, interj., 312, 1; w. dat., 381, N. 3, 3. Hendiadys, 636, III., 2.

Hepar, quant. of increm., 585, I., 4, 1. Hephthemimeral caesura, p. 356, footnote 4.

Hephthemimeris, 597, N. 2.

Hērēs, quant. of increm., 585, III., 3. Heroic verse, 604, N. 2.

Heros, decl., 68.

Heteroclites, 127; 135 ff.; adjs., 159, III.

Heterogeneous nouns, 127; 141 ff. Heu, interj., 312, 3; w. acc., 381, N. 2.

Heu in hiatus, 608, II., 1. Heus, interj., 312, 5.

Hexameter, 603, notes 2 and 6: 609 ff. Hiatus, 608, II.

Hiber, decl., 51, 4, 3); quant. of increm., 585, III., 3.

Hic, 186; 191; use, 450; in, 579, 3. in hốc, 579, 3. Hốc redundant, 636, III., 7. Hic, 304, III., 2; 305, I.; w. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3. Hilarus, hilaris, 159, III. Hinc, 305, 111. Hindering, constr. w. verbs of, 505, II.
Historical tenses, 198; hist. present,
467, III.; in temp. clauses, 518, N.
1; hist. perfect, 198, 1; 197, N. 1;
471, II. Hist. tenses in sequence,
491 ff. Hist. infin., 536, 1. Hôc, 304, II., 3, N. Hodië, 120, N.; 304, II., 1; ē in, p. 341, foot-note 2; ē in, 594, 10. Honestus w. supine, 547, 1. Horace, logacedic verses in, 628; versification, 630 ff.; lyric metres, 631; index, 632. Horreō w. acc., 371, III., N. Hōrsum, 305, II. Hortative subj., 484, II. Hortor, constr., p. 274, foot-note 1. Hortus, hortī, 132. Hospitus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 2. Hostile, constr. w. adjs. signifying, 391, II., 1. Hostis, decl., 62. Hours, Roman, 645; 645, 2. H S, signification, 647, 3. *Hūc*, 304, II., 3, N.; 305, II.; w. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3. Hūjusmodī, 186, 4, N. Humilis, compar., 163, 2. Humus, gend., 53, 1; humi, locat., 426, 2. 'Husband,' apparent ellipsis of, 398, Hydrops, quant. of increm., 585, II., 2. Hypallage, 636, IV., 2.

I

Hyperbaton, 636, V. Hyperbole, 637, VI. Hypermetrical, 603, N. 3.

Hypothetical, see Conditional.

Hysteron proteron, 636, V., 2.

 for J, p. 2, foot-note 1. I, i, sound,
 ti 10 ff. I final shortened, 21, 2,
 I interchanged with j, 28;
 dropped, 36, 4. I for ii and ie,
 t. I-nouns, 55; i-verbs, 211.
 Stems in i, 62 ff.; origin of, p. 36, foot-note 3. Nouns in \$\bar{t}_i, 71; gend., 111. -\bar{I} in abl., 62; for \$\bar{t}_i, 121, 1; in adverbs, 304, 11., 2; 304, 111., 1. \$\bar{I}_i, \bar{t}_i\$ final, 580, \$\bar{L}_i; 581, \$\bar{L}_i\$; in

increments of decl., 585; 585, IV.; conj., 586; 586, III. I as conse-nant, 608, III., N. 2. -iā, suffix, 320, II. Nouns in -ia, Nouns in -ia, 325; -ia and ies, 138. -**ia** in prop. names, $\tilde{\imath}$ in, 577, 5, N. -iacus, adjs. in, 331; a in, 587, II., 2. -iades, a in, 587, II., 1. Iambie verse, 603, N. 1; 621 ff.; stan-za, 631, XVI. Iambus, 597, II.; irrational, 598, 1, 2). -iānus, adjs. in, 331. -**Ibam** for -iebam, 240, 1. Iber, decl., 51, 4, 3); quant. of increm., 585, III., 3. Ibī, 304, III., 2; 305, I. and IV.; in, 581, I., 2; quant. of ult. in compds., -ibilis, quant. of antepen., 587, IV., 1. -**ībō**, -**ībor**, for -iam, -iar, 240, 2. Ibus, for eis=iis, p. 73, foot-note 2. -icius, adjs. in, 329. Ictus, 599; place in hexam., 612.
-icus, adjs. in, 330; 331; compar., 169, 3. I in icus, 587, II., 2. -īcus, adjs. in, 335, 5.

Id agō w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 2.

Id redundant, 636, 111., 7.

Idcircō, 554, IV., 2.

Idem, decl., 186, VI.; w. dat., 391,

N. 1. Use of idem, 451.

Ideō, 554, IV., 2.

-ides or -ides, in patronymics, 587, II., 1. Ides, 642, I., 3.

-**ī d ō**, *i* in, 587, I., 2. Idoneus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Idōneus quī w. subj., 503, II., 2.

Idūs, gend., 118. -idus, i in, 587, II., 2. -iē, suffix, 320, II.

-iēnsis, adjs. in, 331. -ier for $\tilde{\imath}$ in infinit., 240, 6.

-iēs, nouns in, 325, N. 1; 327; -iès and -ia, 138.

-iginti, quant. of antepen., 587, III.,

Igitur, 310, 4; 554, IV., 3; position, 569, III.

Ignārus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2.

Ignis, decl., 62. Ignotus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1.

-**igō**, nouns in, 324, N.; 327, 4, N.; in, 587, I., 2. -īle, nouns in, 323; ī in, 587, I., 4.

Ilico, 304, II., 1, N.; o in, 581, II., 1. Ilion, decl., 54. -ilis, compar. of adjs. in, 163, 2; 168,

1. I in -ilis, 587. II., 5.

-Ilis, adjs. in, 330; compar., 169, 3. I in ilis, 587, II., N. 1.

-illa, nouns in, 321, 4. Illac, 305, V.

Illative conjs., 310, 4; 554, IV.

Ille, 186; 191; use, 450; position, 569, I., 1. Illud redundant, 636, III., 7.

Illīc, deel., 186, 2. Illīc, 304, III., 2; 305, I.

Illinc, 305, III. -illō, verbs in, 339.

Illo, illoc, illūc, 304, II., 3, N.; illūc, 305, II.

Illūdō, constr., p. 202, foot-note 1. -illus, -illum, nouns in, 321, 4; adjs., 332, N. 1.

-im in acc., 62; for -am or -em in pres. subj., 240, 3. Adverbs in -im, p. 144, foot-note 3.

Imbēcillis, compar., 163, 2. Imber, decl., 62, N. 2; 65, 1, 2).

Imbuō, constr., p. 225, foot-note 3. Immemor w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; quant. of increm., 585, II., 3.

-imonia, nouns in, 325; o in, 587,

-imonium, nouns in, 324; \bar{o} in, 587, III., 4.

Impedimentum, impedimenta, 132. Impello, constr., p. 274, foot-note 2. IMPERATIVE, 196, III. Syntax, 487 ff. Imperat. in prohibitions, 488 ff.; in indir. disc., 523, III. Imperat. sentences, 354. Imperat. subj., 484, IV. E in imperat., Conj. II., 581,

Imperf. indic., 468 ff.; subj., 480; in subj. of desire, 483, 2; in potent. subj., 485, N. 1; in seq. of tenses, 493; 495, III.; for future time, 496, I. in condit.

I.; in condit., 507, III.; 510; 513, N. 1; in concess., 515, II., 3; in temp. clauses, 518, N. 1; 518, 1; 519, 2, N. 1; 520, II.; 521, II.

Imperitus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2.

Impero, constr., p. 274, foot-note 1; p. 310, foot-note 1.

Impersonal verbs, 298 ff.; impers. pass., 195, II., 1; 534, 1. Clauses of result as subjects of impers. verbs,

501, I., 1. Impertio, constr., p. 198, foot-note 1. Impetro, constr., p. 274, foot-note 2. Impleo, constr., 410, V., 1; p. 225, foot-note 3.

Imploring, constr. w. verbs of, 374, 2,

N. 3.

Impos, os in, 581, VII., 1; quant. of increm., 585, II., 3.

Impotens w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Imprūdens w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; w. force of adverb, 443, N. 1.

Impulse, subj. w. verbs of, 498, Il. Imputing, two datives w. verbs of, 290, N. 1, 2).

Imus, meaning, 440, N. 2. -in, suffix, 320, II.

In, 308; in compds., 344, 5 and 6; w. dat., 386. In w. acc. or abl., 435; 435, N. 1; 435, I.; w. acc. after adjs., 391, II., 1; for genit., 396, III., N. 1. In w. abl. for genit., 397, 3, N. 3. In w. ger., p. 315, foot-note 5; p. 316, foot-note 1. in in, 579, 3.

-**īna**, nouns in, 324. Incassum, 304, I., 2.

Incedo, constr., p. 202, foot-note 1. Inceptives, 280; 337.

Incertus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Inchoatives, 337.

Inclination, constr. w. adjs. of, 391, II., 1, (2).

Inclutus, compar., 167, 2. Incredibilis w. supine, 547, 1

Increments, quant. in, 582 ff.; decl., 585; conj., 586. Inde, 304, III., N.; 305, III.; 310, 4.

Indeclinable nouns, 127, I.; 128; gend., 42, N. Indecl. adjs., 159, I. Indefinite pronouns, 189; 455 ff. Indef. relat. adverbs, 305, N. 1. Indef. subject. 460, 1, N. 2, 512, 9 def. subject, 460, 1, N. 2; 518, 2.

Independent clauses, 348, N. 2. Index of verbs, p. 383; lyric metres of Horace, 632.

Indicative, 196, I.; use, 474 ff. Indic. for subj. in condit., 511. Indigeō, constr., 410, V., 1.

Indignus, constr., 421, III.; 421, N. 3. Indignus qui w. subj., 503, II., Indignus w. supine, 547, 1.

Indigus, constr., p. 219, foot-note 4. Indirect Discourse, 522; moods in prin. clauses, 523; in sub. clauses, 524; tenses, 525; persons and pronouns, 526; condit. sentences, 527. Direct changed to indir., 530; indir. to direct, 531. Indirect clauses, 528 ff.; questions, 529; subj. in, 529, I.; indic., 529, 7.

INDIRECT OBJECT, 382 ff.; w. direct object, 384, II.

Indo-European languages, 638. Indu, u in, p. 340, foot-note 1. Indūcō, constr., 377.

Indulging, dat. w. verbs of, 385, II.

Induō, constr., 377; p. 198, foot-note 1.
-**īnē**, nouns in, 322, N.; *i* in, 587, I., 3. Inferne, e final in, 581, IV., 4. Inferus, compar., 163, 3. Inflatis w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1.
Infimus, meaning, 440, N. 2.
INFINITIVE, 200, I.; origin, p. 156, foot-note 1; gend., 42, N.; endings, 248. Infin. in sequence of tenses, 495, 4. Infin. in relat. tenses, 495, 4. Infin. in relat. clauses, 524, 1, 1); after conjs., 524, 1, 2). Construction of infin., 532 ff. Infin. w. verbs, 533. Infin. of purpose, 533, II. Infin. w. adjs., 533, II., 3; w. verb. nouns, etc., 533, 3, N. 3; w. preps., 533, 3, N. 4; w. verbs w. acc., 534; 535. Subject of infin., 536. Histor. infin., 536, 1. Pred. after infin., 536, 2. Tenses of infin., 537. Infin. as subject, 538. Infin. in special constr., 539; as pred., 539, I.; as appos., 539, II.; in exclamations, 539, III.; in abl. abs., 539, IV. Infitiās, constr., 380, 2, 3). Influence, dat. of, 384, 1, 1).

Infra, p. 149, foot-note 2; w. acc.,
483; 433, I. Ingrātis, īs in, 581, VIII., 1. Ingrātus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Inheritance, divisions of, 646, 3, 4). -ini, quant. of pen., 587, I., 8. Inimīcus, injūcundus, w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Injuring, dat. w. verbs of, 385, I. Innttor w. abl., 425, 1, 1), N. Inops w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Inquam, position, 569, V. Inquies, quant. of increm., 585, III., 3. Insciens w. force of adverb, 443, N. 1. Inscius w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Inseparable preps., 308; in compds., 344, 6; quant., 594, 2.

Inspergō, constr., p. 198, foot-note 1.

Instar, defective, 184; gen. w., 398, 4.

INSTRIBUTATE (Japp 227 9. 411) II INSTRUMENTAL CASE, 367, 3; 411, II. Instr. abl., 418 ff. Abl. of instrument, 420. Īnstruō, constr., p. 225, foot-note 3. *Insuber*, decl., 65, 1, 2). *Insuētus* w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3; p. 210, foot-note 3; p. 315, foot-note 2. Insuper w. acc. or abl., 437, 3. Integer w. gen., 399, III., 1. Intensives, 336. Inter in compds., 344, 5; w. dat., 386. Inter w. acc., 433; 433, I.; for gen., 397, 3, N. 3; w. reciprocal force, 448, N. Inter w. ger., p. 315, footnote 5.

Interchange of vowels and consonants, $Intercl\bar{u}d\bar{o}$, constr., p. 198, foot-note 1. Intercus w. short increm., p. 343, foot-Interdiū, interdius, interdum, 304, I.,

Intereā, 304, IV., N. 2. Interest, dat. of, 384, 1, 2). computation of interest, 646, 3, 3). Interest, constr., 406, III.; 408. Interior, compar, 166. Interjections, 312; 556; 557; w. voc., 369, 1; w. acc., 381, N. 2; w. dat., 381, N. 3, 3); 389, N. 2.

INTERNAL OBJECT, 371, I., 2.

Interne, e final in, 581, IV., 4.
INTERROGATIVE pronouns, 188; 454.
Inter. conjs., 311, 8; 555, VIII.
Inter. sentences, 351. Inter. words, 351, 1. Double questions, 353. Inter. sentences w. potent. subj., 486, II.; in indir. disc., 523, II. Indirect questions, 528, 2; 529, I.

Interrogō w. two accs., 374, 2. Interval, abl. of, 430. Intimus, meaning, 440, N. 2. Intrā w. acc., 433; 433, I. Intransitive verbs, 193, II.; 195, II., 1; 372, III., N. 3; impers. passive,

465, 1. *Intrō*- in compds., 594, 8. Intus w. abl., 437, 2. -**inus**, adjs. in, 330, 331; compar., 169,

3. -Inus or -inus in adjs., 587, II., 5, w. N. 2. $Inv\bar{a}d\bar{o}$, constr., p. 202, foot-note 1.

Invicem, 304, I., 2.

quant. of stem-syllable, 588. -Io, $-i\delta$, suffixes, 320, II.; nouns in, 324; 326.

-īōn in prop. names, i in, 577, 5, N. Ionic feet, 597, N. 1; verse, 626; stanza, 631, XIII.

-ior in comparatives, 162. -Ior, suffix, 320, II.

-ios, suffix, 320, II.

Ipse, decl., 186, V.; use, 452; w. abl.
abs., 434, 4, N. 3. Gen. of ipse w.

possessive, 398, 3. Ipsus for ipse, p. 73, foot-note 5. ir, decl. of nouns in, 51, 4. Iron age, 640, III., 2.

Ironical condition, 507, 3, N. 1. Irony, 637, V.

IRRATIONAL time, 596, 1, N. 2. Irrat. trochee, 598, 1, 1). Irrat. iambus, 598, 1, 2).

IRREGULAR nouns, 127 ff.; adjs., 159. Irreg. comparison, 163 ff. Irreg. verbs, 289 ff.

Is, decl., 186; correlat., 191; use, 450,

18, decl., 100, correlate, 191, dec, 200, 4, N. 2; 451. *Is—qui*, 451, 4. *E* in *ēī*, 577, I., 2, (1). *I* in *is*, 579, 3.

-1s, decl. of adjs. in, 62, IV., N. 1; of nouns in, 65, 1; 82. Gend. of nouns in, 105; 107. -*Is* in adverbs, 304, I., 3, 1). -*Is* in acc. pl., 62; 64. 67. in adverbs, 304 II. 1. - *Is* 64; 67; in adverbs, 304, II., 1. -Is or -īs final, 580, III., w. N. 2; 581, VIII.

Islands, gend. of names of, 42, II., 2; constr., 380, 2, 2); 412, II., 1; 426, 1. -issimā, -issimo, suffixes, p. 156,

foot-note 9.

-issimus, a, um, in superlat., 162; p. 157, foot-note 9.

-issō, verbs in, 336, N. 2.

Istāc, 305, V. Iste, decl., 186, II.; correlat., 191; use,

Istīc, decl., 186, 2. Istīc, 304, III., 2; 305, I. Istinc, 305, III.

Istō, istōc, 304, II., 3. Istūc, 304, II., 3; 305, II.

-īt in Plautus for -it, 580, III., N. 2. Ita, 305, V.: ita—si, 507, 3, N. 2.
 Meaning of ita, 551, N. 2. Ut—ita, w. superlat., 555, II., 1. A in ita, 581, III., 3. Ita redundant, 636. III., 7.

Itaque, 310, 4.

-itās, nouns in, 324; 325; i in, 587, II., 4.

-iter, i in, 587, II., 4. -itia, nouns in, 325.

-ities, nouns in, 325, N. 1.

-ītim, ī in, 587, I., 7. -itimus, adjs. in, 330, 1.

-itium, nouns in, 324.

-itō, frequentatives in, 336, II. -itūdo, nouns in, 325; i in, 587, IV., 1. -itus in adverbs, i in, p. 345, foot-note 2; 587, II., 4. I in -itus, 587,

I., 7. -iu, suffix, 320, II.

-ium, decl. of nouns in, 51, 5. -Ium

in gen. pl., 62; 63; 64; 66; 67. Nouns in -ium, 324; 327. -ius, suffix, 320, II. Decl. of nouns in -ius, 51, 5. Adjs. in -ius, 330; 331; 333, 5. I or i in ius in gen., 577, I., 3, (3). I in ius in prop. names, 577, 5, N. -īvus, adjs. in, 333, 5; i in, 587, I., 6. -ix, decl. of nouns in, 95. -Ix, decl. of nouns in, 94; quant. of increm., · 585, IV., 1.

J, j, modifications of I, i, 2, 4; sound, 7; effect on quantity of preceding syllable, 16, I., 2; 576, II.; 576, 2; interphenesed with 5 interchanged with i, 28; dropped, 36, 4.

-ja, suffix, 320, I.

Jacio, spelling and pronunciation of compds., 36, 4.

Jam, compds. of, w. present, 467, 2; w. imperf., 469, 2.

-jans, suffix, 320, I.

Jecur, decl., 77, 4. Jocus, plur. joci, joca, 141.

-jor, suffix, 320, II.

Joy, force of adjs. expressing, 443, N. 1.

Jubar, quant. of increm., 585, I., 4, (1). Jubeō, constr., p. 310, foot-note 1; in pass., 534, 1, N. 1.

Jucundus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1;

w. supine, 547, 1. Judex, decl., 59.

Jūdiciō, constr., 410, II., 1.

Jūgerum, deel., 136, 1. Jūgerum as unit of measure, 648, V.

Jugum, quant. of syllable before j in compds., 576, 2.

Julian calendar, 641. Jungō w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1; w.

abl., 419, 1, 1) Juppiter, decl., 66, 3.

Jūrātus w. active meaning, 257, N. 2. Jūs, decl., 61.

Jūsjūrandum, decl., 126.

Jūssō for jūsserō, 240, 4. Juvenal, versification, 630.

Juvenis, decl., p. 36, foot-note 3; compar., 168, 4.

Juvo w. accus., 385, II., N. 1.

Juxtā w. accus., 433.

\mathbf{K}

K seldom used, 2, 6. -ka, suffix, 320, I.

Karthāgŏ, decl., 66, 4. Kindred words near each other, 563.

Knowing, constr. w. verbs of, 533, I., 1; 535, I., 1, (2). Knowledge, adjs. of, w. gen., 399, I.,

2; p. 315, foot-note 2; w. force of adverbs, 443, N. 1.

Liqui, i in, 590, 1.

Liquid measure, Rom., 648, III.

L, stems in, decl., 60; nouns in, decl., 75; gend., 111; 112. Quant. of final syllables in *l*, 579, 2; 580, II.

-la, lä, suffixes, 320. Nouns in -la, Quant. of Labials, 3, II.; 3, N. 1, I., 3. Labial stems, 57. Lacer, decl., 150, N., 1). Lacrimo w. accus., 371, III., N. 1. Lacus, decl., 117, 1, 2). Lacdo w. accus., 385, II., N. 1. Lactus w. force of adverb, 443, N. 1. Laevā, constr., 425, 2. Lampas, decl., 68. Language, Latin, 638. Lapis, decl., 58. Lar, quant. of increm., 585, I., 4, (1). Lassus not compared, 169, 4.

LATIN period, 573. Lat. lang. and literature, 638. Early Latin, 639. LATIN period, 573. Lat. authors, 640. Learning, constr. w. verbs of, 533, Leaving, verbs of, w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2). Lengthening of vowels, 20. -lēns, -lentus, adjs. in, 328. Leō, decl., 60. Lepus, quant. of increm., 585, II., 3. Lesser Ionic, 597, N.; Archilochian, 617, N.; Asclepiadean, 628, IV.; Sapphic, 628, VI.; Alcaic, 628, VIII. Letters, classification, 3; sounds, 5 ff. Names of letters indecl., 128, 1. Tenses in letters, 472, 1. -leus, nouns in, 321, N. Levō, constr., p. 217, foot-note 5; p. 219, foot-note 1. Lex, quant. of increm., 585, III., 3. -li, suffix, 320, II. Libens w. force of adverb, 443, N. 1. Līber, Bacchus, līberī, decl., 51, 4. Liber, era, erum, 149 Libero, constr., p. 217, foot-note 5; p. 219, foot-note 1. Lībra, 648, I.; divisions, 648, I., 1. Librō, constr., 425, 2, N. 1. Liceō w. abl., p. 226, foot-note 1. Licet, 311, 4; w. subj., 515, III. Pleonasm w. Licet, 636, III., 9.
Liger, decl., 66, III., 1.

Ligus w. short increm., p. 343, foot-

Likeness, dat. w. adjs. of, 391, I.;

391, II., 4.

Limit, accus. of, 380.

Linter, decl., 65, 1, 2).

Liquids, 3, II., 4; developing vowels, 29, N. Liquid stems, 60. Līs, deel., p. 38, foot-note 4; quant. of increm., 585, IV., 2.

-lis, adjs. in, 333. Literature, Lat., 638. Litotes, 637, VIII. Littera, litterae, 132. Lītterās dare. 385, 1, N. Litum, i in, 590, 1. -lo, suffix, 320, II. LOCATIVE, 45, 2; 48, 4; 51, 8; 66, 4; 120, N. Locatives as adverbs, 304, III. Abl. w. locat., 363, 4, 2). Syntax of locat., 367, 2; 411, III.; 425, II.; 426, 2. Locat. abl., 425, ff. Loco, constr., 380, N. Locuples, quant. of increm., 585, III., 3. Locus, plur., 141. Loco, constr., 415, Loco, locis, constr., 425, 2. Logacedic verse, 627 ff. Long measure, Rom., 648, IV. Long syllables, 575. Long stem-syllables in primitives, 595. long vowel shortened in hiatus, 608, II., N. 3. Longinguus, superlat. wanting, 168, 3. Longius without quam, 417, 1, N. 2. -1s, decl. of nouns in, 90.

Luctor w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1.

Lūdicer, defect., 159, II.

Lūdus, lūdī, 132. Luēs, defective, 134. -lus, -lum, nouns in, 321; adjs., 332. Lūx, without gen. plur., 133, 5; quant. of increm., 585, V., 2.

Lycūrgīdēs, ī in, p. 345, foot-note 8.

Lynx, decl., p. 38, foot-note 3. Lyric metres of Horace, 631; index, 632. M

M changed to n, 33, 4; assimilated to s, 34, 1, N.; developing p, 34, 1, N. Stems in m, 60. Prepositions in m, p. 149, foot-note 2. Quant. of final syllables in m, 579, 2; 580, II. M final elided, 608, I. -ma, -mā, suffixes, 320.

Maereō, constr., 371, III., N. 1. Magis in comparison, 170; 444, 2, notes 1 and 2. Non magis—quam, 555, II., 1. Māgnus compared, 165. Māgnī,

constr., p. 213, foot-note 2. Major in expressions of age, p. 222,

foot-note 4.

Making, verbs of, w. two accs., 373. Male compared, 306, 2. Dat. w. compds. of male, 384, 4, N. 1. E in male, 581, IV., 4. Mālō, constr., p. 274, foot-note 1; 499, 2; p. 310, foot-note 1. Is in māvīs, 581, VIII., 3, N.

Malus, compar., 165. -man, suffix, 320, I.

Manifestus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Manner, adverbs of, 305, N. 2, 3). Abl. of manner, 419, III. Manner expressed by particip., 549, 1. Manus, gend., 118.

Mare, decl., 63; 63, 2. Marī, constr., 425, 2.

Margarīta, plur., 142.

Martial, metres, 633, II. Mās, decl., p. 38, foot-note 4; quant.

Massey, adds., p. 305, 1., 4, (2).
Masculine caesura, 611, N.
Mastery, adjs. of, w. gen., 399, I., 3;
verbs of, w. gen., 410, V., 3.
Material expressed by abl., 415. Madaid and a series of the serie terial nouns, 39, 2, 3); plur., 130, 2. *Mātūrus*, compar., 163, 1, N. *Mātūtīnus*, ī in, p. 345, foot-note 5.

Māximē in adverbial comparison, 170. Māximī, constr., p. 213, foot-note 2. Means, abl. of, 418; 420. Means ex-

pressed by particip., 549, 1. Measure of difference, abl. of, 417, 2. Roman measures, 646; 648.

Mēcastōr, interj., p. 152, foot-note 4.

Med for me, 184, 5.

Medeor w. dat., 385, II., N. 3. Medial vowels, 3, I., 2.

Medius designating part, 440, N. 2. Medius fidius, mehercule, mehercules, interj., p. 152, foot-note 4.

Mel, defect., 133, 4, N. Melius w. indicat., 475, 5.

Melos, decl., 68, 6. Members of complex sentences, 348, N. 1.

 $M\bar{e}m\bar{e}$ for $m\bar{e}$, 184, 4.

Memini w. gen., 406, II.; w. acc., 407; w. pres. infin., 537, 1.

Memor, decl., 158. Memor w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Quant. of in-crem. of memor, 585, II., 3.

Memorābilis w. sup., 547, 1. -men, suffix, 320, II.; nouns in, 327. Mendicus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 4.

Mēnsa, decl., 48. Mensis, decl., p. 36, foot-note 3.
-mento, suffix, p. 157, foot-note 1.

-mentum, nouns in, 327. Mepte for me, 184, 5.

Merces, quant. of increm., 585, III., 3.

Meridies, gend., 123; defect., 130, 1, 4). Messis, decl., 62, III., 1.
-met, forms in, 184, 3; 185, N. 2.
Metaphor, 637, II.

Metathesis, 635, 5.

Metonymy, 637, III. Metre, 601, N. 3. Metrical equivalents, 598. Metr. name

of verse, 603. Metuō, constr., 385, 1; p. 274, footnote 3.

Meus, decl., 185, N. 1. Mī for mihī, 184.

Middle voice, 465. *Mīles*, decl., 58.

Mīlitia, decl., 48, 4; constr., 426, 2. Mīlle, decl., 159, I.; use, 174, 4; 178. Mīlia masc. by synesis, 461, 2.

Million sesterces, how denoted, 647,

-min, suffix, 320, II.

-mini as pers. end., p. 118, foot-note 3. Minimi, constr., p. 213, foot-note 2. -minō in imperat., 240, 5.

Minor caesura, p. 357, foot-note 1. Minor, minus, without quam, 417, N. Minoris, constr., 405; p. 213, foot-note 2.

Minus, minimē, as negatives, 552, 3. Non minus—quam, 555, II., 1.

Mirificus, compar., 164, N. Miror w. acc., 371, III., N. 1; w. gen., p. 217, foot-note 5; p. 310, foot-note 2.

Mirum w. quantum, 305, N. 4. Mirus not compared, 169, 4.

Mīs for meī, 184, 5.

Misceō w. dat., 385, 3; p. 201, foot-note 1; w. acc. and dat., p. 201, foot-note 2; w. abl., 419, 1, 1), (2). Miser, decl., 150, N.

Misereor, miseresco, w. gen., 406. Miserescit, miseretur, constr., 410, IV.,

Miseret, constr., 409, III.

Mitto w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2). -mo, suffix, 320, II.

Moderor, constr., 385, 1.

Modifiers, 357 ff. Position of modifiers, of nouns, 565; adjs., 566; verbs, 567; adverbs, 568.

Modins, 648, II.

Modius, 648, II.

Modo, 311, 3. Modo, modo ne, w. subj. of desire, 483, 6. Modo w. subj. in condit., 513, I. Non modo -sed etiam (vērum etiam), 554, I., 5. O final in modo and compds., 581, II., 1.

Modus, circumlocutions w., 636, III., 10.

Molestus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1.

Molossus, 633, III., 1, N. -**mon**, suffix, 320, II.

Moneo, constr., 374, 2; p. 193, foot-note 3; 410, I., 2; p. 274, foot-note 1. Money, Roman, 646 ff.

-monia, -monio, suffixes, p. 157, foot-note 1; monia, nouns in, 327.

-monium, nouns in, 327. Monocolon, p. 352, foot-note 3. Monometer, 603, N. 2.

Monosyllabic preps. repeated, 636,

III., 6. Monosyllables, quant., 579. Mono-

syllables at end of line, 613, N. 2.
Months, Roman, 641; 642, III., 2;
names of, originally adjs., p. 36,
foot-note 2; gender, 42, I., 2;
names of, in -ber, deel., 65, 1, 1).
Moons 195, Mosel signs 44, 47.

Moons, 196. Mood signs, 244 ff. Indic., 466 ff. Subj., 477 ff.; 490 ff. Imperat., 487 ff. Moods in subord. clauses, 490 ff.; in condit. sentences, 506 ff.; in concess. clauses, 514 ff.; in causal clauses, 516 ff.; in temp. clauses, 518 ff.; in indir. disc., 523 ff.; in indir. clauses, 529. Infinit., 532 ff.

Morae or times, 597.

Mos, mores, 182. Motion to, how expressed, 384, 3, 1); 385, 4, 1); 386, 3.

Moveo w. abl., 414, II.; w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 2.

-ms, decl. of nouns in, 88.

Mulciber, decl., 51, 4, 3).
Multī, indef. num., 175, N. 3.
Multīmodīs, 304, II., 1, N.

Multiplication, how expressed, 174, 2,

Multiplicatives, 173, 1. Multitūdo w. plur. verb, 461, 1. Multus, compar., 165; plur., 175, N. 3. Mūs, deel., 64; p. 38, foot-note 4. Mutes, 3, II., 5.

Mutō, constr., 422, N. 2.

N assimilated to l, 34, 2; to m, 34, 3; dropped, 36, 3, N. 3; 36, 5, 3). Stems in n, 60. Decl. of nouns in n, 76; gend., 113. Quant. of final syllables in n, 580, II., w. notes 1 and 2.

-na, -nā, suffixes, 320.

Nam, 310, 5; w. emphasis, 351, 4, N. 1. Name, dat. of, 387, N. 1; gen. of, 387, N. 2. Name of verse, 603.

Names, Roman, 331, N. 3; 439, 4, N.;

649. Names of towns, constr., 380, Manue, 310, 5; 554, V., 2.
Nasals, 3, II., 2; developing vowels, 29, N.

Nātālis, nātālēs, 132.

Nātus w. abl., 415, II. Naucī, constr., p. 213, foot-note 3. Nāvis, decl., 62, III.

Nd shortens preceding vowel, p. 37, foot-note 2.

-Ne, interrog. particle, 310, 2, N.; 311, 8; in questions, 351, 1 and 2; in double questions, 353, 1; in indir. questions, 529, 1 and 3. Position of -ne, 569, III., 4. E elided before consonant, 608, I., N. 2.

Ne, 311, 4 and 5; 552; w. subj. of doing 482, 2, 486, 2, 487, 2

desire, 483, 3; 489, 3; w. imperat., 488; w. subj. of purpose, 497, II.; 498, III., notes 1 and 2; omitted, 499, 2. Ne in concessions, 515, III. Nē nōn, 552, 1. Nē—quidem, 553, 2; 569, III., 2. Nē or ne as prefix, 594, 2.

-**nē**, nouns in, 322, N.

Nearness, dat. w. adjs. of, 391, I.; gen., 391, 4.

Nec, 310, 1; 554, I., 2. Nec—nec (ncque), nec-et (que), et-nec, 554, I., 5. Position of nec in poetry, 569, III., N. E in nec, 579, 3.

Necessārius w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Necessary, dat. w. adjs. signifying,

Necesse est, constr., 502, 1.

Necne, 310, 2, N.; 311, 8; 353, 2, N. 3; 529, 3, 2). Nectar, quant. of increm., 585, I., 4,

Necto w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1. Nedum w. subj., 483, 3, N.; ē in, 594,

2, N. 2. Needing, constr. w. verbs of, 414, I.

Nefas, defect., 134; w. sup., 547, 1. Negatives, 552; w. subj. of desire, 483, 3. Two neg., 553. Gen. neg., 553, 1 and 2. Position of neg., 569,

Nemo, use, 457, 1; followed by quin, p. 278, foot-note 3. *E* in *nēmō*, 594, 2, N. 2.

 $N\bar{e}nu$, u in, p. 340, foot-note 1. $N\bar{e}p\bar{o}s$, decl., 58.

Nequam indecl., 159, I.; compar., 165, N. 2; è in, 594, 2, N. 2.

Nequaquam, ē in, 594, 2, N. 2.

Neque, 310, 1; 554, I., 2. Neque-neque, 553, 2; 554, I., 5. Neque-et, et-neque, 554, I., 5,

Ne—quidem, 553, 2; 569, III., 2. Nequiquam, nequitia, e in, 594, 2, N.

 $N\bar{e}r\check{e}is$, \check{e} in, p. 345, foot-note 1.

Nescio quis, qui, 191, N.; 455, 2. Nescio w. interrog. adv., 305, N. 3. scio quis, quomodo, w. indic., 529, 5, 3). Nesciŏ an, 529, 3, N. 2.

Nescius w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Neu, see Neve.

-neus, adjs. in, 329. Neuter, decl., 151, 1.

NEUTER nom., acc., and voc. pl., 46, 2, 1). Neuter by signification, 42, N.; by ending, Decl. II., 53; Decl. III., 111; Decl. IV., 118. Neuter pron. or adj., as cognate acc., 371, II.; 375; w. part. gen., 397, 3; in pred., 438, 4. O in increm. of neut., 585, II., 1.

Neve, neu, 311, 5; w. subj. of desire, 483, 3; w. imperat., 488; w. subj. of purpose, 497, 1, N. Nēve—nēve, 552, 2. Ē in nēve, 594, 2, N. 2.

Nex, defect., 133, 5.

Nf lengthens preceding vowel, 16, N.

 $N\bar{i}$, 311, 3; in condit., 507 ff. $N\bar{i} =$ 'but,' 'except,' 507, 3, N. 3. $N\bar{i}$ for $n\bar{e}$, 552, 1.

-ni, suffix, 320.

Night, Rom. division of, 645; 645, 1. Nihil, defect., 134; for non, 457, 3. Nihil aliud nisi, nihil aliud quam, 555, III., 1.

Nihilī, constr., 404, N. 2.

Nimis w. genit., p. 209, foot-note 3. Nimium quantum, 305, N. 4.

Nisi, 311, 3; in condit., 507 ff. Nisi = 'but,' 'except,' 507, 3, N. 3; = 'except,' 'than,' 555, III., 1. Nisi sz, 507, 3, N. 4. Nisi quod, nihid aliud nisi, 555, III., 1. I final in nisi, 581, I., 1.

Nitor, constr., 425, 1, 1), N.; 498, II.,

Nix, decl., p. 38, foot-note 4; 66; w. short increm., p. 343, foot-note 2. 10, suffix, 320, II.

-no, suffix, 320,

Nolo, constr., 499, 2; p. 310, foot-note Noli, nolite, in prohibitions, 489, 1). I in nölite, etc., 586, III., 4. Nomen w. dat., 387, N. 1; w. gen.,

387, N. 2. Nomine w. gen. of crime, 410, II., 1. Nomen in name of a

Rom. citizen, 649.

Nominative neut. pl. in adjs., 158, 1. Syntax of nom., 368; two nom., 373, 2. Nom. for voc., 369, 2. Nom. in exclamations, 381, N. 3, 2). -Es in nom. sing., 581, VI., 1; -īs, 581, VIII., 2; -ūs, 581, IX., 1; in plur.,

581, IX., 2. Non, p. 145, foot-note 2; 552. Non modo non, non solum non, 552, 2. Non solum (non modo or non tantum)-sed etiam (vērum etiam), 554, I., 5. Non minus—quam, non ma-gis—quam, 555, II., 1. Non quo, quod, quin, quia, w. subj., 516, 2. Non w. gen. negat., 553, 1. Position of non, 569, IV.
Nondum, 555, I., 1.

Nones, 642, I., 2. Nonne, 311, 8; 351, 1 and 2.

Nos for ego, noster for meus, 446, N. 2. Nostrās, decl., 185, N. 3.

Nostrī, nostrūm, 446, N. 3.

Notus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Nouns, etymol., 39 ff.; gend., 40 ff.; pers. and num., 44; cases, 45; decl., 46 ff.; defect., 122; 129 ff.; indecl., 128; heteroclites, 135 ff.; heterogeneous, 141 ff. Syntax, 362 ff.; agreement, 362 ff.; general view of cases, 365 ff.; nom., 368; voc., 369; acc., 370 ff.; dat., 382 ff.; gen., 398 ff.; abl., 367; 411 ff.; w. preps., 432 ff. Nouns as adjs., 441, 3. Position of modifiers of nouns, 565.

Novus, compar., 167, 2.
Nox, decl., p. 38, foot-note 4.

Noxius w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1; w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.
-ns, decl. of nouns in, 65, 3; 90. Ns

lengthens preceding vowel,

Nt dropped, p. 19, foot-note 9; shortens preceding vowel, p. 37, footnote 2.

-nu, suffix, 320.

Nuběcula, p. 159, foot-note 1. $N\bar{u}b\bar{e}s$, dec Γ ., 62.

Nubo w. dat., 385, N. 3. Nubo, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Nullus, decl., 151, 1; for Eng. adverb, 443, N. 1; use, 457, 2; for non, 457, 3. Nullus followed by quin, p. 278, foot-note 3.

Num, 310, 2, N.; 311, 8; 351, 1; in indir. quest., 529, II., 1, N. 3.

-**num**, nouns in, 327.

Number, 44; in verbs, 199. Gen. in descriptions of number, 419, 2, 1).

Numerals, 171 ff.; adjs., 172 ff.; decl., 175 ff.; symbols, 180; adverbs, 181; in compounding numbers, 174, 3. Numerals w. gen., 397, 2. Numer-Numerals w. gen., 397, 2. als in dates, 642, III., 1. $N\bar{u}mmus, 647.$

Nunc, 304, I., 4; 305, IV.

Nuntior, constr., 534, N. 1, (2). Nuper, 304, IV., N. 2; compar., 306, 4. -nus, adjs. in, 329. Nūsquam w. gen., 397, 4.

O, ō, sound, 5; 10; 11. \bar{O} final shortened, 21, 2, 3). O-nouns, 51. Decl. of nouns in \bar{o} , \bar{o} , 60, 4; 72; quant. of increm., 585, II., 5, (2); gend., 99; 100. Num. adverbs in $-\bar{o}$, 181, N. 2. Origin of \bar{a} final in value. Origin of \bar{o} final in verbs, p. 118, foot-note 5. Adverbs in $-\bar{o}$, 304, II., 1 and 2. Superlat. adverbs 505, 11.; in increm. of decl., 585, 11.; conj., 586. O, interj., 812, 1, 2, and 5; w. acc., 381, N. 2. O si w. subj. of desire, 483, 1. \bar{O} in hiatus, 608, II., 1.

-o, -ō, suffixes, 320, II. Nouns in -ō,

326, 2.

Ob in compds., 344, 5; in compds. w. dat., 386. Ob w. acc., 433; 433, I.; w. ger., p. 315, foot-note 5. Obeying, dat. w. verbs of, 385, I.

Obiter, 304, I., 2.

Object, 302, 11, 2.

Object, direct, 371; external, 371, I.,

1; internal, 371, I., 2. Object
omitted, 371, III., N. 4. Infin. or
clause as object, 371, IV.; 540, N.
Indir. object, 382 ff. Object clauses of purpose, 498; of result, 501, II. Objective compds., 343, II. Object.

gen., 396, III. Oblique cases, 45, 1; use of, 370 ff. Obliviscor w. gen., 406, II.; w. acc.,

Oboediens w. two dats., 390, N. 3.

Obviam, 304, I., 2. Occisit for occiderit, 240, 4. Occupatio, p. 373, foot-note 2.

Octor, compar., 166. Octo, o final in, 581, IV., 2. Oc, sound, 6; 12. Oedipus, u in, 581, IX., 3, N. Offendō, constr., 385, II., N. 1.

Öhē, interj., 312, 3; ở in, 577, I., 4; ē in, 581, IV. 4.
0i, sound, 6, 1; 12, 1.
-is, õ in, 587, I., 3; 577, 5, N.
-öius in prop. names, ở in, 577, 5,

N.

-ola, o in, 587, II., 3. -ōlentus, ō in, 587, IV., 1. Oleō w. acc., 371, III., N. 1.

Ollus, olle, for ille, p. 73, foot-note 1,

-olum, -olus, o in, 587, II., 3.

Omission of consonants, 36; of ōrō in adjurations, 569, II., 3.

Omnis, gen. of, w. possessives, 398, 3. -on, -on, suffixes, 320, II.; -on in Greek gen. plur., 68, 4. Quant. of increm. of nouns in -on, 585, II., 5,

-ōna, ō in, 587, I., 5.

-one in patronymics, 322, N.; o in, 587, I., 3.

Onerō, constr., p. 225, foot-note 3.

-**ōnī**, ō in, 587, I., 8. Onomatopoeia, 637, XI., 5. -**ōnus**, \bar{o} in, 587, I., 5.

Open vowel, 3, I., 1. Opera, operae, 132. Oper subj., p. 274, foot-note 2. Operam dō w.

Opimus, superlat. wanting, 168, 3. Oportet, constr., 502, 1; 537, 1. Opposing, constr. w. verbs of, 505, II.

Ops, decl., p. 38, foot-note 3; 133, 1.
Optative in fut. and in pres. subj., p.
117, foot-note 4. Optat. subj., 484, I.
Optimātēs, decl., 64, 2, 4).

Optimus w. supine, 547, 1.

Optō, constr., p. 274, foot-note 1. Opus, 'work,' decl., 61. Opus, 'need,' defect., 134; constr., 414, IV.; w. sup., 547, 1. Opus est w. subj.,

 $50\bar{2}, 1.$ -ōr, -ōr, suffixes, 320, II. Nouns in -or, 327. O shortened in -or, 21, 2, 2). Gen. of nouns in -or, 99, 101.

 $-\bar{O}r$ in Plautus for -or, 580, III., N. Quant. of increm. of nouns in -ōr, 585, II., 5, (1). ŌRĀTIŌ OBLĪQUA, see Indirect Dis-course. Ōrātiŏ rēcta, 522, 1.

Orbis, decl., 62, IV.

Orbō, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Order of vowels in strength, 22. Ordinal numbers, 172; 174; decl., 179.

-**ōrius**, ō in, 587, III., 1. Ornō, constr., p. 225, foot-note 3. Orō w. two accs., 374, 2; w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 1. Orō omitted in

adjurations, 569, II., 3. Orpheus, decl., 68.

Orthography, 1, I.; 2 ff. Ortus w. abl., 415, II.

-ōrus, compar. of adjs. in, 169, 3. Ō in -ōrus, 587, I., 6. Ōs, quant. of increm., 585, II., 1.

Os, ossis, decl., p. 38, foot-note 4; o in, 579, 3.

-os, suffix, 320, II. Sound of -os, 11, 1. Greek neuters in -08, 68, 6. Decl. of nouns in -ōs, -os, 83; 133, $\bar{O}s$ or os

4, N.; gend., 99; 102. final, 580, III.; 581, VII.

Ossua, p. 50, foot-note 1. Ostrea, plur., 142. -ōsus, adjs. in, 328; ō in, 587, I., 6. -ōtis, ō in, 587, I., 3. -ōtus, ō in, 587, I., 7. Ovid, versification, 630. Owing, constr. w. verbs of, 533, I., 1. -ox, -ox, decl. of nouns in, 96.

Oxymoron, 637, XI., 5.

P

P changed to b, 33, 2; to m, 33, 3, N.; developed by m, 34, 1, N.

**Paene w. perf. ind., 471, 2; w. hist.

**tenses of indic., 511, 1, N. 4.

**Paenitet, constr., 409, III.; 410, IV.

**Palutale, 3 II. N. 1 I.

**Palutale, 3 II. N. 1 II.

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**Palutale, Palatals, 3, II., N. 1, I., 1. Palus for palūs, 581, IX., 1, N. Palūster, decl., 153, N. 1, 1). Panthūs, voc., 54, N. 4. Papae, interj., 312, 2. Par, constr., p. 205, foot-notes 1 and 3; quant. of increm., 585, I., 4, (1). Paraleipsis, 637, XI., 2. Parasitic u, 5, 4. Pardoning, dat. w. verbs of, 385, II. Parēns, gen. plur., p. 38, foot-note 2. Parentage expressed by abl., 415. Parenthetical clauses in indir. disc., 524, 2, 1); in indir. clauses, 529, II., N. 1, 2). Pariēs, ēs in, 581, VI., 1. *Paris*, decl., 68. Paroemiac verse, 604, N. 2. Paronomasia, 637, XI., 7. *Pars*, acc., 64, N. 2. *Pars*, partēs, 132. *Pars* in fractions, 174, 1. *Parte*, partibus, constr., 425, 2. Pars w. plur. verb, 461, 1. Particeps w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Participation, gen. w. adjs. of, 399, I., 3; w. verbs of, 410, V., 3. Participles, 200, IV.; endings, 248. Particip. in seq. of tenses, 495, IV. Agreement of particip., 438, 1; 460, 1. Particip. for infin., 535, I., 4. Use of particip., 548 ff.; denoting time, cause, manner, means, 549, 1; condit., concess., 549, 2; purpose, 549, 3; for relat. clause, 549, 4; for prin. clause, 549, 5; w. negat., 549, N. 1. Particip. rendered by noun, 549, N. 2. Particles, 302 ff.; adverbs, 303 ff.; preps., 307; 308; conjs., 309 ff.; interjections, 312. Syntax of parti-

eles, 551 ff.; adverbs, 551 ff. In-

351, 1; 555, 8. -A in particles, 581, III., 3. Partim, 304, I., 1; w. gen., p. 209, Partim-partim for foot-note 3. pars-pars, 461, 5. Partitive apposition, 364. Part. gen., 396, IV.; 397. Parts of speech, 38. Partus, decl., 117, 1, 2). Parum w. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3. Parvus, compar., 165. Parvi, constr., p. 213, foot-note 2. Passer, decl., 60. Passive Voice, 195, II.; impers., 195, II., 1. Passive constr., 464; 534, 1. Passive like middle, 465. Passus, 648, IV., N. Pastor, pater, decl., 60. Paterfamilias, decl., 126. Patrials, 331, N. 1; quant. of increm., 585, II., 5. Patronymics, 322. $Paucar{\imath},\, ext{defect.},\, 159,\, ext{II.}$ Pause, caesural, 602. Pax, defect., 133, 5. Pecu, decl., p. 50, foot-note 1. Peculiarities, in conjugat., 235 ff.; culiarities in Rom. calendar, 642. note 3.

terrog. particles, p. 152, foot-note 3;

in seq. of tenses, 495; in expressions of purpose, 499; of result, 502. Pe-Pecus w. short increm., p. 343, foot-

Pedester, decl., 153, N. 1, 1). Pelagus, decl., 51, 7; gend., 53, 2. Penalty, how expressed, 410, III. Penātēs, decl., 64, 2, 4). Penes w. acc., 433; es in, 581, VI., 2.

Peninsulas, constr. of names of, 380, II., 2, 2).Pentameter, 603, N. 2; dactylic, 614.

Penthemimeral caesura, p. 356, footnote 4.

Penthemimeris, 597, N. 2.

Penus, gend., 118, (2).
Per in compds., 170, 1; 344, 5; w. acc., 372. Per w. acc., 433; 433, I; denoting agency, 415, I., I, N. 1; manner, 419, III., N. 3. Per sc. 452, 1, N. Position of per in adjura-tions, 569, II., 3. E in per, 579, 3. Perceiving, constr. w. verbs of, 585, I.

Percontor w. two accs., 374, 2. Perfect Tense, 197; 198. Perf. system, 222, II. Perfect stems, 252 ff. Perf. wanting, 262, N. 2; 272, N. 2; 282; 284, N. 2. Perf. w. pres. meaning, 297, I., 2. Syntax of pert. indic., 471; subj., 481; in subj. of desire, 483, 2; in potent. subj., 485, N.1; in prohibitions, 489, 3). Perf. in seq. of tenses, 492; 493; 495; 496, II. Perf. in condition, 507, H.; 509; 511, 1; 511, 2, N.; 513, N. 1.; in concess., 515, H., 2; in temp. clauses, 518, N. 1; 520, N. 1; in indir. disc., 525, 1; 527, H.; articip., 550; rendered by verbal noun, 549, 8, N. 2. - Is in perf. subj., 581, VIII., 5. Quant. of pen. of dissyllabic perfects, 590. Quant. of first two syllables of trisyllabic reduplicated perfects, 591.

Perhibeor, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2). Periclès, decl., 68. Periculum est w. subj., p. 274, foot-

note 3. Period, Lat., 573. Periods of Lat.

literature, 640.

Periphrastic conjugat., 233; 234; use, 466, N.; p. 261, foot-note 4; 476, 1; in condit. sentences, 511, 2. Periphrast. fut. infin., 537, 3.

Perītus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3;

of ger., p. 315, foot-note 3.

Permisceo w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1. Perniciosus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Person of nouns, 44; verbs, 199; in indir. disc., 526.

Personal pron., 183, 1; 184; use, 446; reflexive use, 448; 449. Pers. endings of verbs, 247. Pers. constr. in indir. questions, 529, 6; in pass.

voice, 534, 1.

Personification, 637, IX. Persuading, dat. w. verbs of, 385, II. Pertaedet, pertaesum est, constr., 410,

IV., notes 1 and 3. Pes, es in compds., 581, VI., 1.

as unit of measure, 648, IV. Petō, constr., 374, 2, N. 4. Phalaecian verse, 629, I.

Pherecratic verse, 628, II. and IV.-VI. *Phōcais*, a in, p. 345, foot-note 1. Phonet.

PHONETIC CHANGES, 19 ff. decay, p. 12, foot-note 1.

Phryx, decl., 68.

 $Ph\bar{y}, 312, 4.$ Piget, constr., 409, III.; 410, IV. Pilī, constr., p. 213, foot-note 3.

Pix wants gen. plur., 133, 5; w. short

increm., p. 343, foot-note 2. Place, adverbs of, 305, I., II., and III.; 305, N. 2, 1). Endings of designations of place, 323. Constr. w. verbs meaning to place, 380, N. Place whither, 380; where, dat., 385, 4, 4); abl., 425; locat., 425,

II.; 426; whence, 412. Adjs. of place for Eng. adverbs, 443, N. 2. Plautus, quantity of syllables in, 578, N. 2; 580, III., notes 2-4; metres,

633, III. Pleasing, dat. w. verbs of, 385, I.

Plēbēcula, formation, p. 159, footnote 1.

Plēbs, quant. of increm., 585, III., 3. Plenty, constr. w. verbs of, 410, V.; 421, II.; 421, N. 1; w. adjs. of, 421, II.

Plēnus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Plenus W. geu., p. 210, 1001
Pleonasm, 636, III.
Pluperfect, 197; 222, II. Plup. indic., 472; 476, 2; in seq. of tenses, 493; in temp. clauses, 518, N. 2; 521, II., 1. Plup. subj., 482; in seq. of the seq. of t 521, II., 1. Plup. subj., 482; in subj. of desire, 483, 2; in seq. of tenses, 493; 495, I.; 496, II., (2); in condit., 507, III.; 509, N. 3; 510; 513, N. 1; in concess., 515, II., 3; in temp. clauses, 518, 1; 519, 2, N. 1; 520, II.; 521, II., 2; in indir. disc., 527, 2; 527, II. and III.; 527, N. 2.

Plural, 44; wanting, 130. for sing., 130, 3; 446, N. 2. Plur. w. change of meaning, 132. -E in

Greek plur., 581, III., 1. -Is in plur., 581, VIII., 1. Plurimi, indef. num., 175, N. 3; gen.

Therms, index. Bull., 17, N. 2. gen of price, p. 213, foot-note 2. Plūs, 165, N. 1; without quam, 417, 1, N. 2. Plūris, constr., p. 213, foot-note 2; 405. Quant. of increm. of plūs, 585, V., 2. Poetical dat., 380, 4; 385, 4; 388, 4. Pollūz, quant. of increm., 585, V., 2. Plūrius, u. in. 581, I.X., 3. N.

Pŏlypus, u in, 581, IX., 3, N.

Polysyndeton, 636, III., 1.

Pondo, 648, I. Pone w. acc., 433.

Pōnō, constr., 380, N. positum, 592, 2. O in posui,

Por, insep. prep., 308. Por for port, 344, 6.

Porticus, gend., 118, (1).

Portus, decl., 117, 1, 2). Posco w. two accs., 374, 2.

Position, syllables when long by, p. 338, foot-note 3.

Positive, 160; wanting, 166. Pos. for

compar., 444, 2, N. 3.

Possessive pronouns, 185; w. gen., 363, 4, 1); 398, 3; for gen., 396, II., N.; 401, N. 3; w. refert and interest, 408, I., 2. Use of poss. pron., 447; reflex, 448; 449. Possessive compds., 343, III. Possessive gen., 396, I. Possessor, dat. of, 387.

Possum, in conclus., 511, 1, N. 2; w. pres. infin., 537, 1.

pres. infin., 537, 1.

Post in compds., 344, 5; w. dat., 386.

Post, denoting interval of time, 430.

Post w. acc., 433; 433, I.

Post w. acc., 433; 433, 1. Post-classical period, 640, III.

Posteā, 304, IV., N. 2; in series, 554, I., N. 4.

Posteāquam, 311, 1; in temp. clauses, 518.

Posterus, compar., 163, 3.

Posticus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 4.

Postis, decl., 62, IV. Postmodum, 304, I., 2.

Postpositive, 554, III., 4; 554, V., 3. Postquam in temp. clauses, 518; w

perf. indic., p. 260, foot-note 2.

Postrēmo in series, 554, I., N. 2.

Postrēmus, force of, 440, N. 2; 442, N.

Postrīdie w. gen., 398, 5; w. acc., 437,

1. Postrīdie quam in temp. clauses,

518, N. 3. Ē in postrīdie, p. 341,

foot-note 2. Postulō, constr., 374, 2; p. 274, foot-

note 1.

Potens w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Potential subj., 485; 486; in declar. sentences, 486, I.; in interrog. sentences, 486, II.; in subord. clauses, 486, III.

Potior w. gen., 410, V., 3; w. abl., 421, I.; w. acc., 421, N. 4; in gerund. constr., 544, N. 5.

Potus w. act. meaning, 257, N. 2.

Pôtus w. act. meaning, 257, N. 2.
Prae in compds., 170, 1; w. dat., 386.
Prae w. abl., 434; 434, I. Quant.
of prae in compds., 576, I., 1; 594, 4.
Praecox, quant. of increm., 585, II., 3.
Praecoxr, quant. of increm., 585, II., 3.
Praecoxr, constr., p. 202, foot-note 1.
Praeditus, constr., 420, N. 1, 4).
Praenōmen, 649; abbreviated, 649, 1.
Praesente w. plur., 438, 6, N.
Praesetō, praestolor, constr., p. 202,

foot-note 1. Praeter in compds. w. acc., 372. Prae-

ter w. acc., 433; 433, I.

Praetereā in series, 554, I., N. 2.

Praeut, 311, 2.

Predicate 356, 2; simple, 360; complex, 361; modified, 361, 1. Pred. nouns, 360, N. 1; 362; for dat., 390, N. 2. Pred. adjs., 360, N. 1; 433, 2. Pred. acc., 373, 1. Pred. gen., 401 ff.; varieties, 402; verbs with, 403 ff.; pred. gen. of price, 404; 405. Pred. abl., 421, N. 4. Pred. after infin., 536, 2. Infin. as pred., 539, I. Predicates complex states of the second sec

pared, 535, I., 6. Position of pred.,

Predicative roots, 314, I.

Prepositions, 307; insep., 308; in compds., 344, 5 and 6. Compds. w. acc., 372; w. two accs., 376; w. dat., 386. Preps. in expressions of time, 379, 1; 429, 1 and 2; 430; of place, 380; 412; 425; of motion or direction, 384, 3, 1); denoting for, 384, 3, 3); of agency, 388, 2. Preps. after adjs., 391, II., 1 and 3. Prep. with obj. for obj. gen., 396, III., N. 1; for part. gen., 397, 3, N. 3; for gen. w. adjs., 400, 2 and 3; for gen. after verbs, 407, N. 2; 410, I., 2; 410, II., 3; after refert and interest, 408, I., 3; 408, IV.; expressing penalty, 410, III.; separation, source, cause, 413; 414, N. 1.; 415; 416, I.; after compar., 417, notes 3 and 5; denoting accompaniment, 419, I.; manner, 419, III. Cases w. preps., 492 ff; acc., 433; abl., 434; acc. or abl., 435. Special uses of preps., 438, I.; 434, I.; 435, I. Preps. originally adverbs, 436. Adverbs as preps., 437. Preps w. infin., 533, 3, N. 4; w. ger., 542, III.; 542, IV., (2); w. gerund. constr., 544, 2. Prep. between adj. and noun, 565, 3. Position of preps., 569, II. Quant. of insep. preps., 594, 2. Monosyllabic preps. repeated, 636, III., 6; other preps., 636, III. 6 N 636, III., 6, N. Presbyter, decl., 51, 4, 3).

Presyter, decl., 51, 4, 3).

PRESENT, 197; 198, I., 1; 222, I.

Pres. stem, 250; 251. Pres. indic.,
466; 467; of gen. truths, customs,
467, II. Hist. pres., 467, III.; in
temp. clauses, 518, N. 1. Pres.
subj., 479; in condit., 507, II.;
509; 513, N. 1; in concess., 515,
II., 2; in indir. disc., 525, 1; 527,
II. Pres. imperat., 487, 1. Pres.
infin., 537. Pres. particip., 550.
Pres. perf., 197, N. 1; 198, I., 2;
471, I. Pres. system, 222, I. -Is
in pres. subj., 581, VIII., 4.

Priapeian verse, 629, II.

Friapeian verse, 629, 11.

Price, gen. of, 404; 405; abl., 422.

Prādie, locat., 120, N.; w. gen., 398, 5; w. acc., 437, 1. Prādiē quam in temp. clauses, 520, N. 2. Ē in prādiē. p. 241. foot-note 2.

prīdiē, p. 241, foot-note 2. Primary stems, 315; 317. Prim. suffixes, p. 153, foot-note 6; 320. Prīmum, primē, in series, 554, I., N. 2. Prīnceps, decl., 57. PRINCIPAL parts of verbs, 202; 220; 257–288. Prin. clauses, 348, N. 2; in indir. disc., 523; supplied by particip., 549, 5. Prin. tenses, 198, I.; in seq., 491 ff. Prin. elements of sentence, 357, 1.

Prior, primus, 166; rendered by relat. clause, 442, N.; by adverb, 443, N.

Priusquam, 311, 1; in temp. clauses,

Prīvo, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Prō, 312, 3; in hiatus, 608, II., 1. $Pr\bar{o}$, $pr\bar{o}d$, in compds., 344, 5; $pr\bar{o}$ in, 594, 5. Compds. w. dat., 386. Pro w. abl., 434; 434, I.; expressing in defence of, in behalf of, 384, 3, 2). Pro w. ger., p. 316, foot-note 1. Proceleusmatics, 633, III., 2, N. 1. Proclitics, 18, 1, N. 1.

Proclivis without superlat., 168, 3; w. supine, 547, 1.

Procul w. abl., 437, 2. $Pr\bar{o}d$ in compds., 344, 5.

Prohibēs, constr., p. 310, foot-note 1. Prohibēssē for prohibuerē, 240, 4. Prohibitions, subj. in, 484, IV., w. N. 1; imperat., 487, 2, 2).

Proinde, 310, 4. Prolepsis, 440, 2; 636, IV., 3.

Pronominal roots, 314, II. Pronouns, 182 ff.; pers., 183, 1; 184; substant., p. 70, foot-note 3; caseendings, 184, 1; possess., 185; demon., 186; relat., 187; interrog., 188; inder., 189; 190; correlat., 188; indef., 189; 190; correlat., 191. Prons. as adjs., 438, 1. Agreement of pron., 445. Use of pers. pron., 446; possess., 447 ff.; reflex., 448; 449; demon., 450 ff.; relat., 453; interrog., 454; indef., 455 ff. Pron. in indir. disc., 526. brought together, 569, I., 2. Pron. redundant, 636, III., 7.

Pronunciation of Latin, Roman, 5 ff.; Eng., 9 ff.; Continental, 15.

Prope w. acc., 433; 433; I.; w. perf. indic., 471, 2; w. hist. tenses of indic., 511, 1, N. 4.

Proper nouns, 39, 1; plur. of, 130, 2. Propinguus without superlat., 168, 3; constr., p. 205, foot-notes 1 and 3.

Propior, proximus, 166; w. acc., 391,
 2; 433, I., N. 2; w. force of Eng.
 adverb, 443, N. 1.

Propius w. acc., 437, 1; 433, I., N. 2. Proportionals, 173, 2.

Proprius, constr., p. 205, foot-notes 1

and 3.

Propter w. acc., 433; 433, I.

Proptereā, 554, IV., 2. Prosody, 574 ff.; quant., 575 ff.; versification, 596 ff.; figures of pros., 608.

Prosopopeia, 637, IX Prosper, decl., 150, N., 1). Prospicio, constr., 385, 1.

Protinus, p. 145, foot-note 5. Prout, 311, 2.

 $Pr\bar{o}vide\bar{o}$, constr., 385, 1. Providus, compar., 164; w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3.

Prōximē w. acc., 433, I., N. 2; 437, 1. Prōximus, see Propior.

Prūdēns, decl., 157; w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3; w. force of Eng. adverb, 443, N. 1, (1).

-pte, pronouns in, 185, N. 2. Pudet, constr., 409, III.; 410, IV. Pudīcus, ī in, p. 345, foot-note 4. Puer, decl., 51.

Pagnō w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1. Puppis, decl., 62, III. Puppose, dat. of, 384, 1, 3); subj. of, 497 ff.; object clauses, 498; peculiarities, 499. Infin. of purpose, 533, II.; gerund, 542, I., N. 2; 542, II., N. 2; 542, II.; supine, 546; particip, 549, 3. Position of clauses of purpose, 572,

 $P\bar{u}s$, defect., 133, N. -pus, compds. in, quant. of increm., 585, II., 5, (3).

Puta, a in, 581, III., 3. Putor, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2). Pyrītēs, decl., 50. Pyrrhic, 597, N. 1.

Pythiambic stanza, 631, XVII. and XVIII.

Q, qu, dropped, 36, 3. Qu changed to c, 33, 1, N. Quā, 304, II., 3; 305, V.

Quaerō, constr., p. 193, foot-note 1. Quālis, quāliscumque, 187, 4. Cūjus-modī, etc., for quālis, 187, 4, N.

Quālis, interrog., 188, 4. Quālislibet, 191.

Quālisquālis, 187, 4. Quality, abl. of, 419, II., w. N. Quam, p. 75, foot-note 1; 304, I., 4; 305, V.; p. 151, foot-note 1; 311, 2; w. comparat., 417; 444, 2; w. superlat., 170, 2, (2); w. infin., 524, Quam for postquam, 430, N. 1, 2).1, 3). Quam pro, 417, 1, N. 5. Quam, quam ut, w. subj., 502, 2.

Quam qui w. subj., 503, II., 3.

Quam sī, 513, II. Tam-quam, non minus—quam, non magis-quam, 555, II., 1. Nihil aliu quam, 555, III., 1. Nihil aliud

 $Q\bar{u}amdi\bar{u}, 311, 1.$ Quamobrem, 554, IV., 2.

Quamquam, p. 75, foot-note 1; 311, 4; in concess., 515, I.; 515, notes 1

and 2; w. infin., 524, 1, 2). Quamvis, 311, 4; in concess., 515, III.; 515, N. 8.

Quando, interrog., 305, IV.; relat., 311, 1 and 7; in causal clauses, Quando in compds., 594, 8.

Quandōquidem, 311, 7; ŏ in, 594, 8. Quantity, 16; 575 ff.; signs of, 16, N. 3; gen. rules, 576 ff. Quant. in final syllables, 579 ff.; increments, 582 ff.; deriv. endings, 587; stem - syllables, 588 ff.; syllables before two consonants or a double consonant, 651.

Quantumlibet, quantumvis, 311, 4.

Quantum vis in concess., 515, N. 6. Quantus, relat., 187, 4; interrog., 188, 4; correlat., 191. Quanti, constr., p. 213, foot-note 2; 405.

Quantusvis, indef., 191. Quapropter, 554, IV., 2. Quare, 304, II., 1, N.; 554, IV., 2; è in, p. 341, foot-note 2.

Quasi, 311, 2; w. quidam, 456, 2; in condit., 513, II. I in quasi, 581, I., 1; a in, 594, 10. Quāvis, indef, 305, V. Que, 310, 1; p. 151, foot-note 1; 554,

 Idem—que, 451, 5. Que—que, et—que, que—et, que—atque, neque (nec)—que, 554, I., 5. Position of que, 569, III., 4. Que lengthened in Vergil, 608, V., N. 2. Querous, decl., 119, 4.

Queror w. infin., p. 310, foot-note 2. Questioning, constr. w. verbs of, 374,

Questions, 351; double, 353; deliberat. in indir. disc., 523, II., 1, N.;

rhetor., p. 297, foot-note 2; indir., 528, 2; 529, I.

 $Qu\bar{\imath}$, relat. pron., 187; 453; interrog., 188; 454; indef., 189; 190; 455; correlat., 191. Qui w. subj. of purpose, 497, I.; of result, 500, I.; 503. Qui in condit., 507, 2; concess., 515, III.; 515, N. 4; causal clauses, 517. Qui dicitur, vocātur, 453, 7. as adverb. acc., 353, 6. Quod in restrict. clauses, 503, N. 1. I in cui, 581, I., 1.

Qui, adverb, 187, 1; 188, 2.

Quia, 311, 7; in causal clauses, 516; w. relat., 517, 3, 2); w. infin., 524, 1, 2). A in quia, 581, III., 3. Quicumque, gen. relat., 187, 3.

Quidam, indef., 190, 2, 1); 191; use,

Quidem w. pron., 446, N. 1; position,

569, III.; 569, III., 3. Quies, quant. of increm., 585, III., 3. Quilibet, gen. indef., 190, 2, 2); use,

Quīn, p. 75, foot-note 2; 311, 6; w. subj., 500, II.; 501, II., 2; 504.

Quinam, 188, 3. Quinarius, 646.

Quīnquātrūs, gend., 118, (2). Quīppe, p. 75, foot-note 2; w. relat., 517, 3, 1). Quiris, quant. of increm., 585, IV., 2.

Quis, interrog., 188; use, 454; indef., 189; 190; use, 455; correlat., 191. I in quis, 579, 3. A in qua, indef., 579, 3. Quid redundant, 636, III., 7.

Quis for quibus, p. 74, foot-note 5.

Quisnam, 188, 3.

Quispiam, indef., 190, 2, 1); use, 455. Quisquam, indef., 190, 2, 1); use, 457. Quisque, gen. indef., 190, 2, 2); use, 458; w. abl. abs., 431, N. 3; w.

plur. verb, 461, 3. suus or suī, 569, I., 2. Placed next

Quisquis, gen. relat., 187, 3. Quid used of persons, 453, 1, N. Quitum, i in, 590, 1.

Quivis, gen. indef., 190, 2, 2); use, 458; is in, 581, VIII., 3, N.

Quō, 304, II., 3, N.; 305, II.; 311, 5; w. part. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3; w. subj. of purpose, 497, II.

Quoad, 311, 1; w. part. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3; in temp. clauses, 519. Quōcircā, 554, IV., 2.

Quocumque, 305, N. 1.

Quod, p. 151, foot-note 1; 311, 7; in

causal clauses, 516.

Quod-clauses, 540, IV., w. N. Nisi quod, 555, III., 1. See also Qui. Quoi for cui, quoius for cujus, p. 74, foot-note 5.

Quolibet, 305, II. Quom, 305, IV.; p. 151, foot-notes 1

and 4; 311, 1, 4, and 7. Quōminus, 311, 5; w. subj., 497, II.; 499, 3, N. 2.

Quoniam, composition, p. 6, foot-note 5; 311, 7; in causal clauses, 516; w. relat., 517, 3, 2). Quoque, 310, 1; 554, I., 4; position, 569, III.; o in, 594, 10.

Quōquō, 305, N. 1. Quōrsum, 305, II. Quot, relat., 187, 4; interrog., 188, 4; correlat., 191. Quotannis, 304, II., 1, N. Quotiens, 305, IV. Quotus, relat., 187, 4; interrog., 188, 4. Quōvīs, 305, II.

Quum, 305, IV.; see Cum.

R assimilated to l, 34, 2; dropped, 36, 3, N. 3. Noun-stems in r, 60; verbstems in supine, 256, 1. Decl. of nouns in r, 77. Quant. of final syllables in r, 580, II., w. N. 2. Decl. of -ra, -rā, suffixes, 320.

Rādīx, decl., 59. Rāstrum, plur., 143, 2. Ratio, circumlocutions w., 636, III.,

Ratum, a in, 590, 1.Rāvis, decl., 62, II., 1.

Re, insep. prep., 308; in compds., 344, 6; e in, 594, 2. Re for re, 594, 2, N. 3.

-re for ris, 237. Reading, rhythmical, 607. Reapse, p. 73, foot-note 5. Reason, clauses expressing, 516. Recollection, adjs. of, w. gen., 399, I., 2; gen. of ger., p. 315, foot-note 2. Recordor w. gen., 406, II.; w. acc., 407, N. 1, (Ĭ); w. abl. w. dē, 407, N. 2.

Recūsō, constr., p. 279, foot-note 2. Red, insep. prep., 308; in compds.,

Reduplicated pronouns, 184, 4; perfects, 255, I. Quant. of first two syllables of trisyllabic reduplicated Increm. of redupliperfects, 591. cated forms of verbs, 586, 2.

Reduplication in pres., 251, 6; perf., 255, I.; compds., 255, I., 4.
Refert, constr., 406, III.; 408.
Refertus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 8.
Refertus prop. 184, 9 Refer. year

Reflexive pron., 184, 2. Reflex. use of pron., 448; 449.

Refusing, constr. w. verbs of, 505, II. Regarding, verbs of, w. two accs., 373; w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2); w. gen.,

Regno w. gen., 410, V., 3.
Relative Pronoun, 187; correlat.,
191; use, 453. Abl. of relat for
postquam, 430, N. 2. Relat attracted, 445, 8. Relat clause w. subj. of desire, 483, 5; purpose, 497,

I.; result, 500, I.; 503; to characterize indef. or gen. anteced., 503, I.; after ūnus, solus, etc., 503, II., 1; after dīgnus, indīgnus, idōneus, 1; after aufius, vinuiquas, vinueus, aptus, 503, II., 2; after comparat. w. quam, 503, II., 3. Relat. clause in condit., 507, 2; concess., 515, III., w. N. 4; causal clause, 517. Relat. clause w. infinit., 524, 1, 1); supplied by particip., 549, 4. Position of relat., 569, III.: before prep. tion of relat., 569, III.; before prep., 569, II., 1. Position of relat. clauses, 572, II., N.

Relaxo, relevo, w. abl., p. 219, footnote 1.

Relieving, constr. w. verbs of, 414, 1. Relinquō w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2). Rěliquus, meaning, 440, N. 2. Rěliqui facere, 401, N. 4.

Remaining, constr. w. verbs of, 501,

Remembering, constr. w. verbs of, 407. Reminding, constr. w. verbs of, 409, I.; 410, I.

Reminiscor w. gen., 406, II. Repeated action denoted by imperf. indic., 469, II.; plup. indic., 518, N. 2, 2); imperf. or plup. subj., 518, Í.

Repelling, dat. w. verbs of, 385, 2. Repentinus, i in, p. 345, foot-note 5. Reposco w. two accs., 374, 2. Requies, decl., 137, 1; quant. of increm., 585, III., 3.

Res, decl., 120; w. adjs., 440, N. 4. Circumlocutions w. res, 636, III., 10. Resisting, dat. w. verbs of, 385, I. $R\bar{e}sp\bar{u}blica,$ decl., 126.

Restat w. subj., p. 276, foot-note 2. Restis, decl., 62, III.

Restrictive clauses w. quod, 503, N. 1. RESULT, subj. of, 500 ff.; substant. clauses of, 501; peculiarities, 502; in relat. clauses, 503; w. quin, 504; w. special verbs, 505. Position of clauses of result, 572, III., N. Rēte, decl., 63, 2, (2).
Reticentia, 636, I., 3; 637, XI., 3. Rēz, decl., 59; quant. of increm., 585,

III., 3.

 $Rh\bar{e}a, \bar{e} \text{ in, } 577, I., 2, (3).$ Rhetoric, figures of, 634, N.; 637. Rhetorical questions, 523, II., 2. Rhythm, caesura of, p. 357, foot-note 1. Rhythmic accent, 599.

Rhythmical reading, 607. Rīdeō w. acc., 371, III., N. 1. Rivers, gend. of names of, 42, I., 2;

-ro, suffix, 320, II.

Rogō w. two accs., 374, 2; w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 1.

 $R\bar{b}ma$, decl., 48, 4.

Roman pronunciation of Lat., 5 ff. Roman authors, 640. Roman calendar, 641 ff.; money, weights, and measures, 646 ff.; names, 649. Roots, 314. Root-stems, 315.

Ros without gen. plur., 133, 5.

Röstrum, röstra, 132.

-rs, decl. of nouns in, 65, 3, (1); 90. Rudis w. gen., p. 210, foot-nôte 3. Rules of syntax, 558.

Rus, decl., 64, N. 3; 133, N.; constr., 380, 2, 1). 426, 2. Rūre, 412, 1. $R\bar{u}r\bar{\imath},$

-rus, compar. of adjs. in, 163, 3. Rutum, quant. of pen., 590, 1.

S, sound, 7; 13, II.; changed to r, 31; dropped, 36, 3, N. 3; 36, 5, 1). Stems in s, 61. Decl. of nouns in s, 64; 65, 3; 79 ff.; quant. of increm., 585, I., 2; 585, II., 2. Final syllables in s short before following consonant, 576, 1, N. 2. Final s dropped in poetry, 608, I., N. 3.

-s, patronymics in, 322.

-sā, suffix, 320, II.

Sacer, compar., 167, 2; w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3.

Saepe, compar., 306, 4.

Sāl, decl., 133, 5. Sāl, sālēs, 132. in sāl, 579, 2; quant. of increm., 585, I., 4, (3). Salix w. short increm., p. 343, foot-

note 2.

Salūber, decl., 153, N. 1, 1).
Salūtāris without superlat., 168, 3; w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1.

Samnīs, quant. of increm., 585, IV., 2. Sānē quam as adverb. phrase, 305, N. 4.

Sapiō w. acc., 371, III., N. 1.

Sapplic verse, 604, N. 1; 628, VI. and VII. Sapphic stanza, 631, II. and III.

Satis, compar., 306, 4; w. part. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3; compds. w. dat., 384, 4, N. 1.

Satum, a in, 590, 1

Satur, decl., 150, N., 2). Saying, constr. w. verbs of, 534, 1, N. 1, (2).

Scanning, 607, N. Scazon, p. 361, foot-note 1. Scelus w. supine, 547, 1.

Scidī, i in, 590, 1.

Sciens w. force of Eng. adverb, 443, N. 1, (1). Scilicet, 304, IV., N. 2.

-sco, inceptives in, 337.

Se, insep. prep., 308; in compds., 344, 6; ē in, 594, 2.

Second decl., 51 ff. Sec. conj., 207; 208; 225; 261 ff.; \$\bar{e}\$ in imperat., 581, IV., 3. Sec. pers. sing. of indef. you, 484, IV., N. 2.

Secondary tenses, 198, II. Secondary stems, 315; 318. Second. suffixes, p. 154, foot-note 4.

Secundum w. acc., 433; 433, I. Secüris, decl., 62, III. Secus, 'sex,' defect., 134. Secus, 'otherwise,' p. 145, foot-note 5. Sed for se, 184, 5. Sed, insep. prep., 308; in compds, 344, 6.

Sed, 310, 3; 554, III., 2. Non solum

(non modo or non tantum)-sed etiam, 554, I., 5. Sed, sed tamen, resumptive, 554, IV., 3. Position of sed in poetry, 569, III., N.

Sēdēs, gen. plur., p. 36, foot-note 4. Sedtamen, 554, III., 3.

Seeming, pred. gen. w. verbs of, 403.

Selling, gen. w. verbs of, 405. Semel, p. 145, foot-note 4.

Sementis, decl., 62, III.

Semi-deponents, 268, 3; 283; 465, N. 2.

Seminex, defect., 159, II. Semi-vowels, 3, II., 1. Senarius, 603, N. 6; 622.

Senātus, decl., 119, 3. Sending, two dats. w. verbs of, 390,

N. 1, 2). Seneca, metres, 633, II., notes 2 and 3.

Senex, decl., 66; compar., 168, 4.
Sentences, syntax, 345 ff.; classification, 345 ff.; simple, 347; 357; companyand, 349; complex, 348; 359; compound, 349; declarat., 350; in indir. disc., 523,

I.; imperat., 354. See also Exclamatory, Interrogative, Conditional. SEPARATION, dat. w. verbs of, 385, 4, Abl. of separat., 413; 414.

Separat. producing emphasis, 561, III.

Sëpse for së, 184, 5. SEQUENCE OF TENSES, 491 ff.; peculiarities, 495.

Sequitur w. subj., p. 276, foot-note 2. Series, how begun and continued, 554,

Series, defect., 122, 2. Serving, dat. w. verbs of, 385, I.

Servus, decl., 51. Sescenti used indefinitely, 174, 4,

Sēsē for sē, 184, 4. Sesterces, 647. Sestertium, sestertium, 647, III. and Sestertius, 646; 647. Setius, quo setius for quominus, 497, Seu, 310, 2. Ships, gend. of names of, 53, 1, (2). Short syllables, 575. Shortening of vowels, 21. Showing, two accs. w. verbs of, 373. Sī, derivat. and meaning, p. 73, footnote 2; 311, 3; p. 281, foot-note 2; in condit., 507 ff.; w. perf. indic., 471, 5; w. plup. indic., 472, 2; w. subj. of desire, 483, 1. Si in concess., 515, II. Si = to see whether, 529, 1, N.1. Si quidem, 507, 3, N. 2.

-si, suffix, 320, II. -Si in Greek dats., 68, 5; i in, 581, I., 1.

Sign. p. 73, foot-note 2: 204, III. 2. Sic, p. 73, foot-note 2; 304, III., 2; 305, V.; 551, N. 2; redundant, 636, III., 7. Sicut, sicuti, 311, 2. Siem for sim, 204, 2. -silis, adjs. in, 333. Silver age, 640, II., 2. Silvester, decl., 153, N. 1, 1). -sim in perf. subj., 240, 4; in adverbs, 304, I., 1. -simā, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 9. Simile, 637, I. Similis, compar., 163, 2; w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1; w. gen., p. 205, foot-note 3. -simo, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 9. Simple sentence, 347; 357. Simp. elements, 357, 2; subject, 358; pred., 360. Simple words, 313, N. 2. Simul, p. 145, foot-note 4; 311, 1; w. abl., 437, 2. Simul atque, ac in temp. clauses, 518; w. perf. indic., Simulāc, simulatque, 311, 1; in temp. clauses, 518; w. perf. indic., 471, 4. Sin, 311, 3; in condit., 507 ff.; p. 282, foot-note 1. Sin aliter, 552, 3. -sin in Greek dat. plur., 68, 5. Sine w. abl., 434. Singular, 44; wanting, 131. Sinistrā, constr., 425, 2. Sinō, constr., p. 310, foot-note 1. I in situm, 590, 1. Siquidem, 311, 7; 507, 3, N. 2; quant. of first syllab., 594, 10. Sitiō w. acc., 371, III., N. 1. Sitis, decl., 62, II., 1. Sive, 310, 2; 554, II., 3.

Size, gen. of, 419, 2, 1).

Skill, gen. w. adjs. of, 399, I., 2; gen. of ger., p. 315, foot-note 2. Smell, acc. w. verbs of, 371, III. -so, suffix, 320, II. So in fut. perf., 240, 4. Socer, decl., 51, 4, 3). Socio w. dat., p. 201, foot-note 1. Sōl, decl., 60; 133, 5; ō in, 579, 2. Solum, non solum-sed etiam (verum etiam), 554, I., 5.
Solus, decl., 151; for Eng. adverb,
443, N. 1, 2. Gen. of sõlus w. possess., 398, 3. Sõlus qui w. subj.,
503, II., 1. Solvo, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Son, apparent empsis o., 149, 3.

Name of adopted son, 649, 3.

N. 1, II., 1 apparent ellipsis of, 398, 1, N. Sonants, 3, II., 5, 1; 3, N. 1, II., 1. Sons, defect., 159, II. -sōrius, ō in, 587, III., 4. Sors, abl., 64, N. 3. Sotadean verse, 626, N. 2. Source, abl. of, 413; 415. Space, acc. of, 379. Sparing, dat. w. verbs of, 385, II. Special constr. w. infin., 539. Gen. in spec. constr., 398. Species, decl., 122, 2. Specification, acc. of, 378; abl., 424. Specimen without plur., 130, 1, 4). Specus, decl., 117, 1, 2); p. 50, foot-note 1; gend., 118, (2). Speech, parts of, 38. speech, 634 ff. Spes, decl., 122, 2. Figures of Sphinx, decl., p. 38, foot-note 3. Spirants, 3, II., 4, 2. Spolio, constr., p. 219, foot-note 1. Spondaic line, 610, 3. Spondee, 597, I. Square measure, Rom., 648, V. Stadium, 648, IV., N. Stanza, 606. Stanzas of Horace, 631. Statuō, constr., 498, I., N.; p. 274, foot-note 1. STEM in decl., 46. Stem-characteris-notes 1 and 2; 203, N. 2; formation of, 249 ff. Stems of words, 315 ff. Stem-syllables, quant., 588 ff.; variation in, 593, 1. Primitives w. long stem-syllables, 595. Sterilis w. gen., p. 219, foot-note 4. Stirpe, constr., 415, II., N. Stiti, i in, 590, 1.

Sto w. abl., p. 226, foot-note 1. E in steti, a in statum, 590, 1.

Strigilis, decl., 62, III.

Striving, constr. w. verbs of, 498, II. Strix w. short increm., p. 343, footnote 2.

Strong caesura, p. 356, foot-note 4. Strues, decl., p. 36, foot-note 4. Studeo, constr., 498, II., N. 1; p. 274, foot-note 2.

Studiōsus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3;
 w. gen. of ger., p. 315, foot-note 2.
 Sub in compds., 344, 5; w. dat., 386.

Sub w. acc. or abl., 435; 435, N. 1; 435, I.

SUBJECT, 356, 1; simple, 358; complex, 359; modified, 359, N. 1. Subj. nom., 368. Subj. indef., 518, 2. Subj. acc., 536. Infin. as subj., Subject clauses, 501, I. Subjects compared, 535, 5. adjs. signifying subject, 391, I. Position of subj., 560.

Subjective gen., 396, II.

Subjunctive, 196, II. Syntax of subj., 477 ff.; tenses, 478 ff.; sequence, 490 ff. Subj. in prin. clauses, 483 ff.; in subord. clauses, 490 ff. Subj. of desire, 483; 484; potent., 485; 486; of purpose, 497 ff.; of result, 500 ff.; in condit., 507 ff.; in concess., 515; in causal clauses, 516: 517; in temp. clauses, 519 ff.; in indir. disc., 523 ff.; in indir. clauses, 529 ff.; in indir. questions, 529, I. Subj. in questions of surprise, 486, II., N. Subj. of desire for imperat., 487, 4. - Is in subj., 581, VIII., 4; -žs, 581, VIII., 5.

Subordinate Clauses, 348, N. 2; 490 ff.; in indir. disc., 524. Subord. conjs., 311; 555; elements, 357, 1;

position, 572.

Substantive pron., p. 70, foot-note 3. Substant. clauses, 532 ff.; 540; of purpose, 499, 3; of result, 501. Substantives, see Nouns.

Subter w. acc. or abl., 435.

Suffixes, 46; case-suffix, 46, 1. fixes in format. of words, 313 ff. Primary suffixes, 320. Suī, decl., 184; use, 448; 449; placed

next quisque, 569, I., 2. I in sibi. 581, I., 2.

Suitableness, constr. w. adjs. of, 391,

I.; 391, II., 1, 2).

Sum w. dat., 387; two dats., 390, N. 1, 1); pred. gen., 403; 404; abl., 415, III., N. 1; p. 226, foot-note 1. Summus, meaning, 440, N. 2.

Supellex, decl., 64, N. 3; 130, 1, 4). Super in compds. w. acc., 372; dat., 386; abl., 434, N. 1. Super w. acc.

or abl., 435; 435, N. 2; 435, I. Superlative, 160; irreg., 163; wanting, 168; 169; formed by māximē, 170. Superlat. w. part. gen., 397, 3; p. 209, foot-note 3. Use of superlat., 444.

Superne, e final in, 581, IV., 4.

Superus, compar., 163, 3. SUPINE, 200, III.; endings, 248. Supine system, 222, III. Supine stem, 256. Supine wanting, 262, notes 1 and 2; 265; 266; 267, 3; 271, 1 and 2; 272, 1; 272, notes 1 and 2; 276; 278; 281; 282; 284; 284, N. 2. Supine in seq. of tenses, 495, IV. of sup., 545 ff.; sup. in um, 545; 546; w. eō, 546, 2; w. ērī, 546, 3; sup. in ū, 545; 547. Quant. of pen. of dissyllabic supines, 590.

Suprā w. acc., 433; 433, I. Supremus, meaning, 440, N. 2. Surds, 3, II., 5, 2; 3, N. 1, II., 2. -surio, desideratives in, 338.

Surname in names of Roman citizens. 649, 2.

Sūs, decl., 66.

Suus, 185; 448; 449; placed near quisque, 569, I, 2.

Syllabic caesura, p. 356, foot-note 4. Syllables, 8; 14; 15, 3; quant., 575 ff. Final syl. of verse either long or short, 605.

Syllepsis, 636, II., 2. Symbols, num., 180.

Synaeresis, 608, III. Synaloepha, synapheia, 608, I., N. 5.

Syncopated pron., 186, 3. Syncope, 608, VII.; 635, 2. Syneodoche, 637, IV. Syncsis, 636, IV., 4; 363, 4; 438, 6; 445, 5; 449, 3; 461.

Synizesis, 608, III., N. 3.

Synopsis of Decl. III., 69-98. Syn. of conj., 223-230.

SYNTAX, 345 ff.; sentences, 345 ff.; nouns, 362 ff.; adjs., 438 ff.; prons. 445 ff.; verbs, 460 ff.; particles, 551 Rules of syntax, 558. Arrang. of words and clauses, 559 ff. Figures of syntax, 634, N.; 636.

Systole, 608, VI.

T, sound, 7; 13, II. T changed to d, 33, 2; assimilated to n or s, 34, 1; dropped before s, 36, 2; when final, 36, 5, 2). Stems in t, 58. Gend. of nouns in t, 111. T changed to s in supine, 256, 1. Quant. of final syllables in t, 579, 2; 580, II.; 580, III., N. 2, 1).

-ta, -tā, suffixes, 320. Nouns in -ta, 325.

Taedet, constr., 409, III.; 410, IV. Taking away, dat. w. verbs of, 385, 2. Tālis, 186, 4; correlat., 191.

Talipa, gend., 48, 5.

Talipa, gend., 48, 5.

Tam, p. 75, foot-note 1; 304, I., 4; 305, V.; meaning and use, 551, N.

2. Tam—guam, 555, II., 1.

Tamen, 310, 3; 554, III., 2; compds.,

554, III., 3.

Tametsi, 311, 4; in concess., 515, II.

Tandem in questions, 351, 4.

Tanquam, 311, 2. Tanquam, tanquam sī, in condit., 513, II.

Tantisper, 304, V., N. 2.

Tantopere, meaning and use, 551, N. 2. Tantum abest ut, 502, 3. Non tantum-sed etiam (vērum etiam), 554,

1., 5. Tantus, demonstr., 186, 4; correlat., 191; w. interrog., 454, 4. Tantī, Tantī, constr., p. 215, foot-note 2; 405. Tantum abest ut, 502, 3.

-tar, suffix, 320, I. -tas, nouns in, 325.

Taste, acc. w. verbs of, 371, III.

-tat, suffix, p. 157, foot-note 9. Tautology discriminated from pleonasm, p. 371, foot-note 1.

Taxis for tetigeris, 240, 4.

Teaching, two accs. w. verbs of, 374. Ted for te, 184, 5.

Temperō, constr., 385, 1.

Templum, decl., 51.
Temporal conjs., 311, 1; 555, I.
Temp. clauses, 518 ff.; position,

572, II., N. Tempus est w. infin., 533, N. 3.

Tener, decl., 150, N., 1). Tenses, 197; prin. and histor., 198. Tense-signs, 242; 248. Tenses of indic., 466 ff.; subj., 478 ff.; imperat., 487 ff. Seq. of tenses, 490 Tenses of Tenses in temp. clauses, 518, notes 1 and 2; in indir. disc., 525. Tenses of infin., 537; particip., 550. *Tentō*, constr., 498, II., N. 1.

Tenus, p. 145, foot-note 5; w. gen., 398, 5; w. abl., 434; after its case, 434, N. 4; 569, II.

Ter, e in, 579, 3.

-ter, suffix, 320, II.; p. 155, foot-note 1. Adverbs in -ter, 304, IV. Nouns in -ter, 326; decl., 60, 3.

Terence, peculiarities in versification, 578, N. 2; 580, III., notes 3 and 4; metres, 633, III.

Terminational compar., 161 ff. Terrā, constr., 425, 2. Terrae, locat., p. 229, foot-note 1.

Terrester, decl., 153, N. 1, 1). Testis sum, constr., 535, I., 3.

Teta for £, 184, 4.

Tetrameter, 603, N. 2; dactylic, 616.

Tetrapody, 597, N. 4.

Tetrastich, 606, N.

Thebais, a in, p. 345, foot-note 1. Thematic vowel, p. 94, foot-note 1;

251. Thesis, 600.

Thinking, constr. w. verbs of, 534, 1, N. 1, (2); 535, I., 1.

Third decl., 55 ff.; adjs., 152 ff.; -o in, 581, II., 2. Third conj., 209; 210; 227; 228; 269 ff.

Threatening, dat. w. verbs of, 385, II. -ti, suffix, 320; p. 157, foot-notes 7 and 9.

-tiā, suffix, p. 158, foot-note 1.

Tibur, decl., 66, 4.
-tīcius, adjs. in, 333, 5.

-tico, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 8.

-ticus, adjs. in, 330, 1. -tiē, suffix, p. 158, foot-note 1.

-tilis, adjs. in, 333. -tim, adverbs in, 304, I., 1.

-timā, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 9; -tima, p. 157, foot-note 9.

Time, adverbs of, 305, N. 2, 2). of time, 379; abl., 429; 379, 1. Time denoted by preps. w. acc., 379, 1; 429, 2; w. abl., 429, 1. Time since, 430, N. 3. Adjs. of time, 443, N. 2. Time denoted by particip., 549, 1. See also Temporal clauses.

Times or morae, 597. Timeō, constr., 385, 1; p. 274, footnote 3.

-timo, suffix, p. 156, foot-note 9. -timus, a, um, suffix, p. 157, foot-note 9. Adjs. in -timus, 330, 1.

-tio, -tiōn, -tiōni, suffixes, p. 158, Nouns in -tio, 326. foot-note 1. Tis for tui, 184, 5.

Titles, superlat. as, 444, 1, N. -tīvus, adjs. in, 333, 5.

Tmesis, 636, V., 3. 'To,' how translated, 384, 3.

-to, suffix, 320, II. -tō for tor in imperat., 240, 5. Tonitrus, decl., 117, 1, 3). -tor, suffix, 320, II

-tor, suffix, p. 155, foot-note 1. Nouns in -tor, 326; as adjs., 441, 3. tōriā, -tōrio, suffixes, p. 158, footnote 4. \bar{O} in $t\bar{o}ria$, 587, III., 4. **t** \bar{o} rium, -t \bar{o} rius, \bar{o} in, 587, III., 4. Tot, demon., 186, 4; correlat., 191. Totiens, 305, IV. Totus, demon., 186, 4.

Tōtus, decl., 151, 1; w. loc. abl., 425, 2. Tōtus for Eng. adverb, 443, N.

1, (2).

Towns, gend. of names of, 42, II., 2; constr., 428; whither, 380, II.; whence, 412, II.; where, 425, II.

-**tra**, suffix, 320, I. *Trādor*, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (2).

Trāns in compds., 344, 5; w. acc., 372; w. two accs., 376. Trāns w. acc., 433; 433, I.

Transitive verbs, 193, I.

Translation of subjunctive, 196, II.; infin., 200, I.

Trees, gend. of names of, 42, II., 2; names of, in -us, decl., 119, 2.

Tres, decl., 175. Tribrach, 597, II.

Tribuō w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2). Tribus, decl., 117, 1, 1); gend., 118, (1).

-trīc, suffix, p. 158, foot-note 4. Tricolon, p. 352, foot-note 3.

Trihemimeral caesura, p. 356, footnote 4.

Trihemimeris, 597, N. 4. Trimeter, 603, N. 2. Tripody, 597, N. 4. Tristich, 606, N.

TrīstisTrīstior, trīstis, decl., 154. w. force of Eng. adverb, 443, N. 1,

(1).Trisyllabic reduplicated perfects, quant. of first two syllables, 591.

-trīx, nouns in, 326; as adjs., 441, 3. -tro, suffix, 320, II.

Trochaic verse, 603, N. 1; 618 ff.; stanza, 631, X.; caesura, p. 356, foot-note 4.

Trochee, 597, II.; irrational, 598, 1, 1). Tropes, 637, V., N.

-trum, nouns in, 326.

Truths, gen., expressed by pres. indie., 467, II.; in condit., 508, 5; 511, 1.

Tt changed to st, ss, or s, 35, 3. Tū, decl., 184. In tibi, 581, I., 2. -tu, -tū, suffixes, 320.

-tuā, -tūdon, suffixes, p. 158, footnote 3.

 $Tul\bar{\imath}, u \text{ in, 590, 1.}$

Tum, p. 75, foot-note 1; 304, I., 4; 305, IV.; in series, 554, I., N. 2. Tum-tum, cum-tum, 554, I., 5.

-tum, nouns in, 323.

Tumultus, decl., 119, 3.

Tune, 304, I., 4; 305, IV.

-tue, suffix, p. 158, foot-note 1.

-tura, suffix, p. 158, foot-note 4.

Nouns in -tūra, 326. -turiō, desideratives in, 338.

-tūro, suffix, p. 158, foot-note 4. Turpis w. supine, 547, N., 1.

Turris, decl., 62. -turus, suffix, p. 155, foot-note 1.

Tus, defect., 133, N. -tus, adverbs in, 304, IV.; nouns in, 326; adjs. in, 328.

-tūs, nouns in, 324; 325. Tussis, decl., 62.

-tūt, -tūti, suffixes, p. 158, foot-note

Tuus, possess., 185. Two accs., 373; 374. Two dats., 390. Two negatives, 553. Two copulatives, 554, I., 5.

U, ū, sound, 5; 10; 11. Uw. sound final, 580, I.; in increments of deel, 585; 585, V.; conj., 586; 586, IV. *U* as consonant, 608, III., N. 2.

-u, suffix, 320.

Ūber, neut. plur., 158, 1. *Ubi*, 304, III., 2; 305, I.; p. 151, footnote 1; 311, 1; w. part. gen., p. 209, foot-note 3; in temp. clauses, 518; 471, 4. *I* in *ubi*, 581, I., 2; quant. of ult. in compds., 594, 9.

Ubicumque, ubiubi, p. 75, foot-note 3; 305, N. 1.

Ubivīs, 305, I.

-ubus for -ibus, 117, 1. -ūceus, \bar{u} in, 587, III., 1. -ūcus, adjs. in, 333, 5.

 $-\bar{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{d}\bar{\mathbf{o}}, \bar{u} \text{ in, } 587, \text{ I., } 2.$ -ugō, nouns in, 324, N.; ū in, 587, 1., 2.

Ui, sound, 12, 2.

-uis for $-\bar{u}s$, 117, 2. -ula, nouns in, 321; u in, 587, II., 3.

-ulentus, u in, 587, IV., 1. **-ūlis**, ū in, 587, I., 4.

 $\bar{U}llus$, decl., 151, 1; use, 457. Ulterior, ultimus, 166. de force of, 440, N. 2; 442, N. Iltimus, Ūltrā w. acc., 433; 433, I.

-ulum, -ulus, in nouns, 321; in

adjs., 332; 333, 5; compar., 169, 3. U in -ulum, -ulus, 587, II., 3.

-um in gen. plur. of nouns, 57; p. 36, foot-notes 3 and 4; p. 38, foot-īrī, 546, 3.

-um for ārum, 49, 3; ōrum, 52, 3.

-**ūna**, \bar{u} in, 587, $\vec{1}$., 5.

Uncia, 646, 1, N.; 646, 3, 1)-4). Unclothing, acc. w. verbs of, 377.

-uncula, -unculus, diminutives in, 321, 3.

Unde, undelibet, 305, III.

-undus, -undi, for -endus, -endi,

Unquis, decl., 62, IV.

Union, dat. w. verbs denoting, 385, 4,

Unlike, gen. w. adjs. meaning, 391, II., 4, (2).

Unquam, 305, IV. -unt, suffix, 320, II.

Unus, decl., 151, 1; 175; followed by abl. w. prep., p. 209, foot-note 1; gen. of, w. possess., 398, 3. Unus w. force of Eng. adverb, 443, N. 1, (2). Unus qui w. subj., 503, II., 1. -**ūnus**, ū in, 587, I., 5.

Unusquisque, decl., p. 77, foot-note 1. -uo, suffix, 320, II. Denom. verbs

in -uō, 335. -ur, suffix, 320, II.; decl. of adjs. in, 150, N.; gend. of nouns in, 111; 114.

Urbs, decl., 64.

Urging, constr. w. verbs of, 499, 2.

-uriō, u in, 587, IV., 2.

-us, suffix, 320, II.; adverbs in, 304, I., 3, 1); nouns in, 326, 2; 327. Us for e in voc., 52, 2. Deel. of nouns in us, 51; 85; 116; in us, 84; quant. of increm., 585, V., 1. Deel. of names of trees in us, 119, 2. Neuters in us, Decl. II., 51, 7. Gend. of nouns in us, us, Decl. III., 111; 115. Nouns in us and um, heteroclites, 139; heterogeneous, 144; 145. Compar. of adjs. in us preceded by vowel, 169, 2. Us or us final, 580, III., w. N. 2; 581, IX. Useful, dat. w. adjs. signifying, 391,

I.; ad, 391, II., 1, (2). Uspiam, usquam, 305, I. Usque w. preps., 433, N. 2. Usque w.

acc., 437, 1.

Usus w. abl., 414, IV.

Ut, utī, 304, III., 2; 305, V.; 311; p. 151, foot-note 1. Ut, ut primum, as soon as, 471, 4. Ut w. subj. as 350d M., 11, 1. 50 W. subj. in questions, 486, II., N.; w. subj. of purpose, 497, II.; after verbs of fearing, 498, III., N. 1. Ut në, ut nën, for në, 499, 1. Ut omitted, 499, 2; 502, 1. Ut w. subj. of result, 500, II. Ut w. subj. of result, 500, III. Ut w. subj. of result, 500, III. Ut sī w. subj. in condit., 513, II. Ut in concess., 515, III. Ut— $s\bar{i}c$, ut—ita, involving concess., 515, N. 5. Ut—ita w. superlat., 555, II., 1. Ut w. relat., 517, 3, 1). Ut in temp. clauses, 518. Ut quisque—ita, 458, 2. Quant. of ult. of uti in compds., 594, 9.

-ut, decl. of nouns in, 78.

Uter, decl., 65, 1, 2).
Uter, decl., 151, 1; correlat., 191.
Utercunque, uterlibet, uterque, utervīs., decl., 151, N. 2. Uterque, constr., 397, N. 2; meaning and use, 459, 47, when the property 461. 4; w. plur. verb, 461, 3. utervis, 581, VIII., 3, N. Uti, see Ut.

-ūtim, ū in, 587, I., 7. Utinam w. subj. of desire, 483, 1. *Ūtor*, constr., 421, I.; 421, N. 4; gerundive, 544, 2, N. 5.

Utpote, 311, 7; w. relat., 517, 8, 1). Utrinde, 304, III., N.

Utrum, 310, 2, N.; 311, 8; 353.

-**ūtus**, \bar{u} in, 587, I., 7. Uu avoided, p. 15, foot-note 1. -uus, adjs. in, 333, 5.

-ux, deel. of nouns in, 97; -ūx, 97, N. 1.

V originally not distinguished from u, 2, 5. Sound of v, 7. V interchanged w. u, 29; treated as guttural, 30, N. 1; changed to c, 33, 1, N.; dropped, 36, 4.

-vă, suffix, 320, I. Vacuus w. gen., p. 210, foot-note 3. Vae, 312, 3; w. dat., 381, N. 3, 3).

Vāh, interj., 312, 1.

Valde quam in adverb. phrase, 305,

Value, gen. of, 404. Gen. w. verbs of valuing, 404.

Vannus, gend., 53, 1, (2). Variable rad. vowel, 20, N. 2; 57, 2; 58, 1, 2); 60, 1, 2); 61, 1, 2).

Variation in quant. of stem-syllables, 593, 1.

Varieties of verse, 609.

Vās, decl., 136, 2. Vas, a in, 579, 3; quant. of increm., 585, I., 4, (2).

Vātēs, decl., p. 36, foot-note 4. Vē, insep. prep., 308; ē in, 594, 2. Ve, vel, 310, 2; 554, II., 2. Vel—vel, 554, II., N. Position of vel in poetry, 569, III., N.; in prose, 569,

III., 4. Velut, 311, 2; 554, II., 2. Velut, velut si, in condit., 513, II. Vēnālis w. abl., p. 226, foot-note 1. Venit in mentem w. gen., 406, N.

Venter, decl., 65, 1, 2). Ver without plur., 130, 1, 4); quant. of increm., 585, III., 3.
Verb stems, format. of, 249 ff.

Verbal endings, analysis of, 241 ff. Verbal roots, 314, I. Verbal nouns in \$\vec{u}\$ defect., 134. Verbal nouns w.

infin., 533, 3, N. 3. Verbs, Etymology of, 192 ff.; classes, 193; voice, mood, tense, numb., pers., 194 ff.; infin., ger., sup., particip., 200; conj., 201 ff.; prin. parts, 202; paradigms, 204 ff.; comparat. view, 213 ff.; verbal inflections, 220 ff.; systems, 222; synopsis, 223 ff.; dep. verbs, 231 ff.; periphrast. conj., 233 ff.; peculiarities in conj., 285 ff.; analysis of verbal endings, 241 ff.; tense-signs, 242 ff.; mood-signs, 244 ff.; pers. endings, 247 ff.; format. of stems, 249 ff.; pres. stem, 250; 251; perf. stem, 252 ff.; sup. stem, 256; classification, 257 ff.; Conj. I., 257 ff.; Conj. II., 261 ff.; Conj. III., 269 ff.; Conj. IV., 284 ff.; irreg. verbs, 289 ff.; defect., 297 ff.; impers., 298 ff.; derivation, 335 ff.; denom., 335; frequent., 336; incept., 337; desiderat., 338; dimin., 339; compds., 344.

Verbs, Syntax of, 460 ff.; agreement, 460 ff. Verb omitted, 368, 3; 523, I., N. Voices, 464; 465. Indic. and tenses, 466 ff. Subj. and tenses, 477 ff.; subj. in prin. clauses, Imperat. and tenses, 487 ff. Subord. clauses, 490 ff.; seq. of tenses, 490 ff. Purpose, 497 ff.; result, 500 ff.; condit. sentences, 506 ff.; concess. clauses, 515; causal clauses, 516; 517; temp. clauses, 518 ff.; indir. disc., 522 ff.; indir. clauses, 528 ff. Infin., 532 ff. Substant. clauses, 540. Ger., 541; 542. Gerundive, 543; 544. Supines, 545 ff. Particip., 548 ff. Position of

modifiers of verb, 567. -0, o, in verbs, 581, II., 2; -ā, 581, III., 3. Vērē, 304, II., 2.

Vereor, constr., p. 274, foot-note 3. Vergil, versification, 630.

Vērō, p. 146, foot-note 1; 310, 3; 554, III., 2 and 4; position, 569,

Verse, caesura of, p. 357, foot-note 1. Verses, 601; name, 603; varieties, 609. Versification, 596 ff. Feet, 597. ERSIFICATION, 596 ff. Feet, 597. Verses, 601; names of, 603; 604. Figures of pros., 608. Varieties of Figures of pros., 608. verse, 609.

Versus, p. 145, foot-note 5; w. acc., 433; as adverb, 433, N. 2; position,

569, II.

Vertō w. two dats., 390, N. 1, 2). Verū, decl., 117, 1, 2). Vērum, 310, 3; 554, III., 2; nōn

solum (non modo or non tantum)vērum etiam, 554, I., 5. Vērum, vērum tamen, resumptive, 554, IV., 3. Vērumtamen, 554, III., 3.

Vervex, quant. of increm., 585, III., 8. Vescor, constr., 421, I.; 421, N. 4. Vesper, decl., 51, 4. Vesper (for vesperis), decl., 62, N. 2.

Vespera without plur., 130, 1, 4). Vespertīnus, ī in, p. 345, foot-note 5. Vestrās, decl., 185, N. 3.

Vestrī, vestrūm, 446, N. 3. Vetō, constr., p. 310, foot-note 1; vetor, 534, 1, N. 1.

Vetus, decl., 158; compar., 163, 1, N.; Viciniae, locat., p. 229, foot-note 1.

Vicinus w. dat., p. 205, foot-note 1. Vicis, defect., 133, 1. Vidē, ž in, 581, IV., 3. Vidē, ž in, 581, IV., N. 2. Videor, constr., 534, 1, N. 1, (1). Vir, decl., 51, 4, 1); v in, 579, 3. Vicine 3, 31, 20

 $Virg \check{o}$, decl., 60. Virtūs, decl., 58.

Vīrus, decl., 51, 7; gend., 53, 2. Vīs, decl., 66; p. 38, foot-note 4; quant. of increm., 585, IV., 2.

Vixdum, 555, I., 1. -**vo**, suffix, 320, II.

Vocative, irreg., 52, 2; 68, 3. Syn-Voc. in exclamat., 381, tax, 369. Position of voc., 569, VI. N. 3, 1). I in Greek voc. sing., 581, I., 2; -ā in, 581, III., 2; -es in, 581, VI., 3; -ūs in plur., 581, IX., 2.

Voices, 195; 464; 465.

Volo w. eth. dat., 389, N. 2; w. subj., p. 274, foot-note 1; 499, 2; w. infin., p. 310, foot-note 1. Volens w.

dat. of possess., 387, N. 3. Increm. of volo and compds., 586, 1. Volucer, decl., 153, N. 1, 1).

Volucris, p. 36, foot-note 3.

-volus, compds. in, 342, 1; compar.,

164.
Voti, constr., 410, III., N. 2.
Vowels, 3, I.; sounds, 5; 9 ff.; 15,
1. Classification of vowels, 3, I. lengthened, 20; shortened, 21; weakened, 22; contracted, 23; changed, 24; assimilated, 25; dissimilated, 26; dropped, 27; interchanged with consonants, 28; 29. Variable vowel, 20, N. 2; 57, 2; 58, 1, 2); 60, 1, 2); 61, 1, 2). Favorite vowels, 24. Vowels developed by liquids or nasals, 29, N. Order of vowels in strength, 22. Themat. vowel, p. 94, foot-note 1; 251. Vowel-stems, compar. of adjs. in, 162, N. Final vowel elided, 608, I.; shortened in hiatus, 608, II., N. 3. Quant. before two consonants or a double cons., 651. Vulgus, deel., 51, 7; gend., 53, 2. Vulpēcula, p. 159, foot-note 1.

-vus, adjs. in, 333, 5.

Want, gen. w. verbs of, 410, V., 1. Watches of night, 645, 1. Way, adverbs of, 305, N. 2, 3). Weak caesura, p. 356, foot-note 4.

Weakening of vowels, 22; diphthongs,

Weights, Roman, 646; 648.

'Wife,' apparent ellipsis of, 398, 1,

Winds, gend. of names of, 42, I., 2. Wishing, constr. w. verbs of, 535, II. Without, constr. w. verbs of being without, 414, I.

Women, names of, 649, 4.
Words, formation of, 313 ff.; derivation, 321 ff.; arrang., 559 ff.

X, sound, 13, II.; dropped, 36, 3, N. 2. Decl. of nouns in x, 64; 65, 3; 91 ff.; gend., 105; 108. Z lengthens preceding syllable, 576, II.

Y

Y only in foreign words, 2, 6; sound, 5, 2; 10 ff. Decl. of nouns in y,73; gend., 111. Yor \bar{y} , final, 580, I.; in increments, 585.

-ys, decl. of nouns in, 68, 2; 86; gend., 107. Ys final, 580, III. -yx, -yx, decl. of nouns in, 97, N. 2.

Z only in foreign words, 2, 6; lengthens preceding syllable, 576, II. Zeugma, 636, II., 1.

TABLE

SHOWING THE CORRESPONDING ARTICLES IN THE TWO EDITIONS,

OLD. NEW.	OLD. NEW.	OLD. NEW.
1-41-4	198, 1197, N. 1	258, II., 4
5, 6	198, 2198	259
	100, 2	
710	198, 3197, N. 2	260258
811	199199	260, 1 and 2257, notes
912	200201	1 and 2
10–1213	201202	1 and 2 261259, 1 261,1 and 2259, notes
1314, 1	202203	961 1 and 9 959 notes
1414, 2	203203, 1	1 and 2 262259, 2
155	204-212204-212	262259, 2
166	213220	263
177	214221	264261
188	215222	265262
1915	216, 217, I223	266
	210, 217, 1220	
2016	217, II	267262, N. 2
2116, I.	218, I225	268263
2216, II.	218, II226	269, I
2316, III.	219, I227	269, II264
24		
	219, II228	270, I267, 1
2518	220,-I229	270, II., 1
2619	220, II230	270, II., 2267, 2
2720	221217	270, III267, 3
2824	222218	271268
28, 2, 2)25, 1	223219	272, I
20, 2, 2)		
29	224	272, II270
3022	225231	273, I., 1271, 1
3127	226232	273, I., 2272, 1
3223	227-230	273, II., 1271, 2
—26, 28	231233	273, II., 2272, 2
3330	232234	273, III272, 3
		2(8, 111
3436, 5, 1)	233234, N.	274, 275, I273, 274
3531, 1	234235	275, II275
—32, 35	235236	276276
3636, 2	236237	276, 1277, N.
37-12037-120	237238	277-279277-279
120, 3121	238239	280272, N. 1
120, 4122	239240	281272, N. 2
121123	240, I213, 214	282280
12247, note 1	240, II. and III215, 216	282, I281
123	241-256241-256	282, II282
124-189124-189	257256, 1	283-285283-285
190190, 1	258, I., 130; 36, 3, 1)	286, I
	250, 1., 1 , 50, 5, 1)	200, 1200
191190, 2	258, I., 2	286, II
	258, 1., 333, 1	287287, N.
192–195192–195	258, I., 434, 1, N.	288-303288-303
196, I196	258, I., 536, 3, N. 3	304305, N. 2
196, II	258, II., 1 and 233, 1	305306
197197	258, II., 334, N.	306307
101	200, 11., 0	000

OLD. NEW,	OLD. NEW.	OLD. NEW.
307308	364, 365365	410 TT 495 1 N
308, 309309	366	419, III 421, II.; 414, I. and III.
910 910 910 910		410, 111421, 11., 414,
310-312310-312		1. and III.
313, I313	367, 368368	419, IV421, III.; 425, 1, N.
313, II340	369-371369-371	1, N.
313, 1313, N. 2	371, 4372	419, V414, IV. 419, 2421, notes 1 and 2
—314–320	1 371. 5371. IV.	419. 2. 421, notes 1 and 2
314, 315321	371, 6464	419, 3414, notes 2-4
316322	371, 7371, I., N.	419, 4, 1)421, N. 4
317323	372	419, 4, 3)421, N. 3
	014	400 400
318324	373, 374378, 374	420367; 411
319325	374, 4	421425, I. and II.; 412
320, 321326, 327	374, 5375	422425, 1 and 2
322, 323328	374, 6376	422, 2
324329	374, 7377	423425, 3
325330	375536	423, 1
326331	376	424
327332	377370, II.	—427, 428
328333	378379	425413-415
329334		
330, 331335	379380 380378	426429
550, 551		427430
332, I	381381	428419, II.; 419, 2
332, II337	382, 383382, 383	429
332, <u>III</u> 338	384-396384-396	430, 431431
332, IV339	396, III397	432-440432-440
333-337304, 305	397398	441, 1 and 2441
338, IIII., 1340	398, 1396, V., N. 3	441, 4440, N. 4
338, 2344, 5	398, 1396, V., N. 3 398, 2395, N. 2	441, 5395, N. 2
338, 3344, 6	398. 3. 396. II. N.: 396.	441, 6440 notes 1-3
339341	398, 3396, II., N.; 396, III., N. 2	442-463442-463
339, 1343, II.	398, 4396, III., N. 1;	464
339, 2341, 1	330, 4300, III., IV. I,	
340	397, N. 3	465–465, II
	398, 5384, 4, N. 2	465, 1–3
341344, 1-4	399, 1-4399	466-474466-474
342304, 305	399, 5400	475
343345	400	475476
344346	401, 402401, 402	476478
345, I347	402, 1 and 2404, 405	477479, 480
345, II348	402, 3401, N. 4	478481, 482
345, III349	403403	479496
346, I	404, 1401, N. 3	480490, 491
346, II., 1351	405	481, I
346 11 2 353	406-408406-408	481, II
346, II., 3	409410, V.	481, III
346, III354	410-410, 2409	481, III., 1 and 2496
946 117 955	410 9 7	481, IV
346, IV355	410, 3-7410	481, V495, III.
347356	411, 1	481, V
348357	411, 2398, 5	481, V1495, IV.
349357, 1	412, 413367; 411	481, VI495, IV. 482495, I., VI., and VII.
350357, 2	414-414, 2413; 416	483, 484477
351358	414, 3419, III.	485, 486485, 486
352359	1414 418 490	1 486 4 and 6 485 notes
353	414, 5 and 6415, I. 414,7418; 419, I.; 419, 1	486, 5
354361, 1	414.7418; 419.I.: 419.1	487, 488483, 484
355	415	488, 1-5483, 1-5
356361, 3	416422	489
357-361	417	490497, 1; 500
362, 363362, 363	418423	491497, 1
363, 4	419, I421, I.	492, 493498, 499
000, 2	1 =10, 1	1 202, 200

arn www.	OLD. NEW.	OLD. NEW.
OLD. NEW.	The state of the s	607574
493, 4483, 3, N.	552, 3 and 4533, II.	
494500	553, I.–IV539	608575
495501	553, V533, II.	609575, foot-note 1
495, 2, 2)486, II., N. 496502	554540	610576, I.
496502	555540, I.	611
497497, 2	556, I 538, 1; 540, N. 556, I., 1 and 2 501, I., 2	611, 2578
498504	556, 1., 1 and 2 501, 1., 2	612577
499497, 2	556, II. and III501, I.,1	613579
500	557540, I.	614580, I.
500, 3503, N. 3	558, I., 1535, I. 558, I., 2498, I.	615581, <u>III</u> .
501503	558, 1., 2498, 1.	616581, IV.
505	558, II., 1533, I., 1 558, II., 2498, I., N.	617580, I.
502506 503, I. and II513	558, II., 2498, I., N.	618
503, 1. and 11513	558, III	619580, I.
503, III507	558, IV501, II., 1	620581, II.
504509, 510	558, V	621580, II.
505513, I.	558, V1498, 1.	622580, III.
506513, II.	558, V1., 2 and 3535, 11.	623581, V. 624581, VI. 625581, VII.
507-510507-510	009041	624
510, 2511, 2	560, 561542	625581, VII. 626581, VIII.
511-511, 2511	562543, 544	626581, VIII.
511, 3512	563542, I.; 544, 1	627581, IX.
512511	563542, I.; 544, 1 564542, II.; 544, 2	627581, IX. 628580, III.; 576, I. 629582
513507, 2	565542, 111.; 544, notes	629582
514514	2 and 5	630583
515, 516515	566542, IV.; 544, 2	631584
517, <u>I</u> 517	567, 568545	632585
517, 11	569546	633585, I.
518, I517; 515, III.	570547	634585, II.
518, 11521	571-574550	635585, III.
519517	575548	636585, IV.
520516	576-578549	637585, V.
521, I519, 2	579549, 5	638585
521, II520	580549, N. 2	639586
522519	581549, N. 1	640586, I.
523 520	582, 583551	641586, II.
524528, 2, N. 525, 526529	584552	642586
525, 526529	585553	643586, III.
527528; 529, II.	586553, N.	644586, IV.
528522	587554	645587, I.
529, 530523 531, 532524, 525	588555	646587, II.
531, 532524, 525	589556	647587, III.
532, 2 and 3527	590557	648587, IV. 588, 589
532, 4525, 2 533526; 530	591558	
533526; 530	592559	649595
534–537487; 489	593560	650592
538, 1	594561	651590
538, 2489, 1)	595562	652
531	596563	653593
539	597564	654594
540-544537	598	655596 656597
545–547536 548532	600567	657, 658598
549-549, 3538	601568	659599
549, 4	602569	660
550533-535	603571	661
551535	604572	662602
559 1 599 T	605573	663603
552, 1533, I. 552, 2534	606570	664604
000, 4	1 000	

430 TABLE OF OLD AND NEW ARTICLES.

077	NEW.		******	1 027	
OLD.	NEW.	OLD.	NEW. 619	OLD.	NEW. 635
665	605	681	619	703	635
666	606	682	$\dots 621$	704	636
667	601, N. 3	683	622	705	637
	607, N.	684	623		638, 639
	608		624		640
	609		625		641
	610		626		642
	610, 1-3		628, IIV.		643
	611		, VI. and VII.		644
	611, 4 and 5		627, 628		645
	612		629, I.		646
	613		628, IX.		647
	614		631, XV.		648, I.
	615		631, XIV.		648, II.
	616				648, III.
	617				648, 1V.
	628, I.		631		
	33, II., note 3		632		649, 1
	618		633		
	620		634		651

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